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ABSTRACT

This textbook aims to help the beginning speaker understand what is necessary for a person to give a competent speech. Although only actual practice can give the necessary confidence, use of the advice given in this textbook, and its application in public speaking situations, will significantly improve an individual's competence in public speaking and help control stage fright. The textbook also pays attention to the second part of the public speaking situation--developing listening skills--and to helping maintain a proper balance between both sides of communication. Chapters in the textbook are: (1) Communication and Public Address; (2) Communication and Ethics; (3) Listening; (4) Speech Preparation; (5) Organization; (6) Informative Speaking; (7) Audio-Visual Aids; (8) Persuasion; (9) Credibility; (10) Audience Analysis; (11) Evidence; (12) Reasoning; (13) Nonverbal Communication; (14) Voice; (15) Language; and (16) Speech Criticism. Appendixes contain instructions for speeches, evaluation forms for speeches, and a test bank. (NKA)

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Responsible Public Address

3rd ed.

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CS 510 245

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Sioux Center, Iowa

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Preface

This book is about public speaking and listening. But it is not like any other book on public speaking. Very quickly you will notice that we come from a very distinctive perspective. We invite you to carefully examine what we have written and discuss it in class.

From the outset, we admit that many students do not find this subject as exciting as we do—at least at first. We have both taught this course for many years, and we still enjoy it as much as ever. The reason we want to keep teaching this course every semester is that we see tremendous growth in most students each time we work through the course. Students come into the course a bit apprehensive, but most leave it with a level of confidence that they had not expected. We want to assure you at the outset that honest effort on your part will make this course not only beneficial, but enjoyable.

• Stage Fright

No rational explanation adequately explains the apprehension most people feel when they have to stand in front of an audience to deliver their ideas. It seems that they feel exposed, that the audience will see every flaw and mistake, that the audience may reject what they have to say, or that they will embarrass themselves in ways that they don't fully understand.

The greatest fear among many people is that of public speaking. In fact, most students would rather not take a beginning course in public speaking if they could avoid it. Many take the course because it is required. Others take it because they know that they will need the skills which are developed in such a course. Most students feel significant anxiety when called upon to give a speech. This anxiety is called stage fright or speech apprehension. Shaking hands, unsettled stomachs, and dry mouths are very common among most inexperienced people facing a public speech. We consider this anxiety to be very normal, and we have learned to help students gain control of their anxiety about public address.

This book aims to help the beginning speaker to understand what is necessary for a person to give a competent speech. But a book alone will not develop the confidence necessary—only actual practice can do that. We maintain that if you take the advice given in this text and apply it in public speaking situations, your competence in public speaking will improve significantly. We do not claim that such understanding and practice will eliminate stage fright, but we believe that you

can control stage fright to the extent that you will be able to deliver competent speeches by the end of the semester. In many cases, you may even be surprised at the increased level of quality in your work. Our experience over many years testifies to the worth of the material in this book. Hundreds of students have gone through our classes and very few have failed to improve significantly. Our claim is that honest effort quickly yields positive results in increased knowledge of public address and improved communication skills.

• Listening as important as speaking

A second, but equally important, part of the public speaking situation is listening. All of us know that effective speaking entails careful listening. Yet, less attention is usually paid to listening skills than to speaking skills. We hope to maintain a proper balance between both sides of communication. Although listening seems much easier than giving a speech, we have found that developing listening skills is significantly more difficult than developing public speaking skills. Yet, we can demonstrate that most students improve their listening skills in clearly measurable amounts in one semester's time. Chapter 3 lays the groundwork for listening.

• Acknowledgments

Clearly this book represents a perspective toward listening and public address that is different from other books on the market. We owe much to our colleagues from several disciplines at Dordt College for the many fine discussions that helped us shape this perspective. We believe that Jesus Christ is Lord of all, and we want all of our work to reflect His Kingdom.

We especially wish to acknowledge the help of our Communication Department colleagues, Professor Martin Dekkenga and Mrs. Kae Van Engen, who have used this text several years and have provided significant suggestions on what should be included. Although we did the writing, the book belongs to them nearly as much as it does to us. We also thank Mrs. Burnette Sawyer, who used an earlier edition as a student, for editing and providing many helpful suggestions.

Dr. Daryl Vander Kooi
Dr. Charles Veenstra

Chapter One
Communication and Public Address

Imagine for a short time that all communication ceased at this moment. What would happen? Sure, all radios would stop. Televisions would go blank. All newspapers would end. But, would that be all?

All mass communication would cease, but so would all of the industry connected to our radios, televisions, newspapers, and magazines. Satellites would cruise about space with no messages being received or transmitted. All employees of the mass media would be unemployed, but so would all those who build radios, televisions, satellites, stereos, compact discs, tapes, and walkman players.

All organizations would cease to function. Churches would have no preaching; schools would have no teaching; and businesses would have no shipping, receiving, displaying, or selling. Even the time clock, which the employer used to tell you what time it was and you also used it as a medium to tell your employer how many hours you worked, would stop. All assembly lines would have to stop since no one would know when to bring more parts. No one would know when the assembly line equipment broke down. No one would know if the speed of the equipment was correct.

All communication at home would stop. You would no longer know when it was time to eat. You would be unable to tell your parents that you need money or that you are ill. You would be unable to tell your family that you love them. You would not be able to make eye contact, or to touch them, or to even know that they are present by their deodorant.

All utilities would eventually stop—no electricity, no water, no gas for the furnace, because those in charge would not know when problems developed, nor would they be able to tell the supervisors and workers when and how to correct the problem.

The prospects are frightening. What would happen to our civility? It is likely that many people would have to fight for food and water. They would probably resort to violence to gain their needs, while others quietly starved to death. The scenario clearly includes the possible slaughter of people and the environment until human society ended!

Humans were created to be social beings. That is evident in the creation account when God recognized that Adam had no other person. He created Eve. Together they were given the command to relate to each other and to care for the

creation. God gave humans the capability to communicate—to create and to use language in order to complete that communication. Humans could use gestures, postures, and facial expressions to communicate. Later, humans also developed print, telegraph, telephone, radio, and video in order to communicate over long distances and to large numbers of people. For humans to be social beings and to complete their mandate for creation, they must communicate. Communication is the key to business, to worship, to education, to socializing, to living as a family—in short, it is the key to the existence of society.

Communication Defined

Several key terms in this field of study have many different definitions and connotations. The beginning speaker can easily have certain fears and misunderstandings of *communication* and *public address.* In order to provide a more complete understanding of both terms and their relationships, in this chapter we will define communication, discuss the characteristics of communication, and show the relationship between communication and public address.

Communication has been defined in many different ways. For example, it has been defined as "transmission of a signal," "the sending of a message to a receiver," or "the movement of a signal from one point to another." Some believe that animals communicate; others maintain that machines such as computers and telephones also communicate. Since this course is concerned with the communication that exists among persons, the term will be limited to human communication. ***Human communication is the process of engendering meaning by way of signs, symbols, and signals.*** When people communicate, they are involved in a process. They use signs, symbols, and signals; and they seek to promote or develop in others' minds virtually the same meaning as they have in their own minds.

Communication Process

A process is a continuously moving, changing, influencing development. When you communicate, you move from sound to sound, letter to letter, movement to movement, contact to contact. That movement can be steady, irregular, or almost stop-and-go, but it is always movement to build, complete, and modify meaning. In a conversation, the meaning is not present in the first sound, but becomes more and more clear, understandable, or comprehensible (or confused!) as your friend

speaks. Each new word, sound, movement, or glance tells you more or helps you to modify the meaning you started to develop at first.

Signs, Symbols, Signals

The distinctions between signs, symbols, and signals can be difficult (they will not be discussed here). The main point to understand is that people use many different sounds, letters, objects, or gestures to engender meaning. For example, they use the stop light on main street, a wink of an eye, printed text, and sounds produced by voice. In public address, you will be concerned with sounds, eye contact, body movement, facial expression, tone of voice, and visual aids. All are used in combination to help the audience to develop the same meaning and to accept that meaning.

Characteristics

The process of communication has several characteristics that might help the communicator understand the process better as one can better understand a dog when one understands the characteristics of a dog. Dogs have hair, run on four legs, have some indication of a tail, bark, etc. The process of communication has the following characteristics:

Dynamic

Communication changes, influences, and molds the audience and the speaker. Communication can build or support the other person, or it can tear down. The old saying "words can never hurt me" is incorrect. Communication can destroy people.

Continuous

When we maintain that communication is continuous, we are saying that communication does not start at a specific point in time and end after the last word or period. Communication is based upon our language from parents, our past, and our personal experiences. Communication also carries into the future. The harsh words spoken by a friend will linger with us and will influence future communication with that friend.

Unique

While most of the words, sounds, letters, and phrases you use to communicate have been used many times before, a specific combination has not been used by you before and will not occur again in the same setting. Each event and its total situation or context has its own communication. You cannot repeat the total meaning again. The time, place, and people will change and therefore change the communication. Even the *same words* in a different time, different place, or to different people will change the communication. You as a communicator are always creating new meanings.

Irretrievable

Once this sentence is written and you read it, that communication cannot be retrieved or taken back. The cliché of "Oh, I'm sorry. I take that back," is an impossibility. You cannot take the words or the meaning back to you and remove the results or impact of that communication.

Multi-dimensional

Communication consists of many different dimensions—all of which work together for the total or complete meaning. For example, a common conversation consists of the words spoken, the personal connotations applied to the words, the tone of voice, the facial expression, body movement and gestures, the urgency of the situation, and the relationships of the communicators. Even the words of a personal letter carry an implied tone of voice and an assumed context. Each dimension used or implied has an impact on the meaning communicated and upon the communicators.

Multi-directional

Communication travels in many directions at the same time. Perhaps a good example is a conversation between two people about a third party when the conversationalists are not aware that the third party is standing behind them and overhears their conversation. In this situation, the conversationalists were not considering that the sound of their voices travels in more directions than just from one mouth to one set of ears. The sound of the voice travels out from its source

into all directions. Similarly, facial expressions, body movements, lip movements, radio signals, and telephone conversations travel in many different directions.

Purposive

All communication, as with all of a person's ideas and actions, has at least one purpose. That purpose can be good or bad, can build or tear down, can support or destroy. Even the common greetings of "Hi, how are you?" or "Hello" have a purpose. Purposes can vary considerably and can be judged differently by different communicators. The intent can be considered important or unimportant, positive or negative. As a Christian communicator, you will recognize several levels of purpose in a single communication such as praising the Savior, supporting a friend, and developing a personal relationship.

Persuasive

While there are many differences in purpose, argument, organization, and appeal between the informative speech and the persuasive speech, the distinction between informative and persuasive communication is not a neat line, not black and white, not either/or. One reason for the difficulty of distinguishing where informative ends and persuasive begins is the characteristic of persuasiveness. Even in the informative communication of teaching a child that 2 + 2 = 4, the teacher intends to inform about a mathematical statement, but he or she also wants the child to accept the truth of the statement. Similarly, you can use a dictionary to check a definition, but the dictionary's purpose goes beyond information to urge acceptance. You do not go to the dictionary to check a definition but then walk away from the dictionary because you believe it to be a liar.

Responsive

All communication has a dimension of response built into it. It originates as a response to and anticipates a response from. Each communication responds to man's calling or role in life, to his nature as an image-bearer of God, and to previous communication. Each communication also inherently assumes some kind of response from the other person or persons by way of an action, a thought, a spoken or written word, a responsibility, a personal relationship, etc. The response has three levels—the level of our lives and callings, the level of our relationships

with God, and the level of interpersonal relationships.

Several comments should be made about the above characteristics of communication. First, the characteristics are interrelated. For example, the purposive characteristic is related to the persuasive and responsive characteristics. The purposive maintains that a purpose or intent exists for each communication; the persuasive indicates one direction (to convince or to sell) of that purpose; and the responsive shows the different levels of response to that purpose (agree, dislike, etc.). Second, each of the characteristics of communication indicates the strong social and moral impact of communication. For example, because communication is dynamic, it changes people. Communicators are responsible for the changes that develop as a result of their communication. If you write a message that personally injures another, you are responsible for that hurt. Or, when communication is considered multi-directional, you are responsible for controlling and properly preparing for all directions. You are responsible for how that gesture will be seen by someone from a distance. Because moral dimensions are automatically a part of communication, one of the first topics of concern in this text will be ethics in public address.

So far, you have studied a definition of communication and some characteristics of communication. If you, the student of communication, wished to analyze the concept or activity of communication beyond definition and characteristics, you could ask several questions:

- √ What happens during communication: What takes place first? second?
- √ What means or tools does a person use when she communicates?
- √ When a person communicates, are there particular areas that are distinctly different from others because of the setting, numbers, and purpose?

While a complete analysis of communication will be reserved for a different course of study, some answers to the above questions can help you recognize the place of public address and its relationship to other areas of communication.

Means or Tools of Communication

When persons communicate, they use five distinctly different tools or means. They use:

1) voice and the corresponding activity of hearing;

2) print and the corresponding activity of reading;

3) the nonverbal means such as gestures, facial expression, tone of voice, and movement;

4) graphics such as photographs, drawings, and film; and

5) electronics such as radio, television, and public address systems.

See Figure 1.1 below for illustration.

Figure 1.1

Each means has its own special structure when analyzed, its own peculiar uses, and its own impact on the audience. For example, when you study speech, you study the biological structure for producing speech sounds, the physical structure of sound, various speech problems, and hearing structures. You also study the impact that speech sounds have on others. One of the differences you will notice is the difference between speech and print. Print can be read and reread to gain more complete understanding while the spoken word in a public address cannot be relistened to. The sentence structure of a written report is also different from that of an oral report.

Public address is a particular area of communication that is distinguished by the relationships between the communicators. In public address, in its usual form, one individual is usually speaking to a large group. Public address brings together other tools of communication. The typical public address utilizes each of the five means or tools: speech, writing, nonverbal, graphic, and electronic. It is self-evident that in public address, you use speech. However, you also use these means during the research for the address, the design of the address, the presentation of the address, and in the audience response to the address.

Implementation of Means or Tools

Research

Speakers preparing for public address will make careful, extensive research a priority. That research should include all possible sources of information. They should speak to experts on the topic through conversation and interview. They should read source materials in books, magazines, pamphlets, reports, journals, and newspapers. They should search for appropriate films, charts, graphs, tables, and pictures that help supply information and analysis. They should listen to particular radio and television programs for background and current information.

Design

Prospective public speakers should also seek for and design all means into their own address. In constructing the public address, they will obviously use voice, but specifically they should use voice to communicate their meaning. That is, they should pay attention to voice, diction, volume, and rate. They should design visual aids such as charts, posters, or slides that include readable, neat print, attractive and clear graphics, and video. They should design speeches to utilize properly the electronic means of tape recordings and public address systems if appropriate.

Presentation

The public address is presented to the audience based upon the design. A good presentation utilizes all areas (print, nonverbal) necessary for good communication. The speech should be appropriate for all to hear and understand. Print is used in visual aids designed to improve understanding. Nonverbal communication supports and assists the spoken words. The electronic assists the spoken word in a public address system or supplies examples for the speaker, such as slides or videotape clips.

Audience

Not only do public speakers utilize all areas in research, design, and

presentation, but the responsible audience also use all these areas in its own preparation and response. The audience uses them to understand and to evaluate the speaker's ideas and perspective. Listeners should not react to the tone of voice alone, or to the visual aids alone, but to the *total* address. Similarly, the audience should come prepared for the address by reading, conversing with others, reflecting on past conversations, and listening to educational radio programs.

Public address integrates all of the means of communication. Both speaker and audience attempt to use all areas and must use those necessary for good communication. Many of the above topics will be developed later in the text in chapters devoted to nonverbal communication, visual aids, voice, listening, and other topics.

Communication and Your Future

In this chapter, you were introduced to the terms *communication* and *public address*. Throughout this book, you will concentrate on understanding and using information from the perspective of public address. We assume that if you become a good public speaker, some of what you learn will carry over to other areas of communication. For example, if you can use good evidence and reasoning, if you can test arguments, if you can develop persuasive appeals, if you can make good ethical judgments, then you should also be able to do the same in class discussions, in conversation, in business reports. Since public speaking and listening involve many different areas of communication, your improved abilities and knowledge should spill over into other areas of communication including those used in your interpersonal relationships and vocation.

However, you must remember that communication is much broader than public speaking and listening. For example, if you were to study communication or become a communication major, you could be studying a vast area that includes:

communication theory
rhetoric
essay writing
editorial writing
radio production
oral interpretation
debate
listening
creative writing including poetry
newspaper and magazine layout
television/radio announcing
news reporting
parliamentary procedure
photography

small group work
speech therapy
organizational communication
propaganda
conflict resolution
film
family communication
sound transmission

This is but a small list of the many areas of study. Some colleges and universities have majors and minors in some of these areas: broadcasting, journalism, speech pathology and audiology, as well as general communication majors. Obviously, the more you progress in the years of study, the more specialized you can become. You can become so specialized that you attain a doctor's degree in audiology, interpersonal communication, television production, organizational communication, or many others.

You should not assume that the study of communication applies to only a few specific vocations such as television news anchor or speech teacher. Those students who graduate with a communication major can enter a large variety of vocations. Consider the following list of positions that past communication majors have had:

real estate sales and development
television and radio producer or director
marketing researcher or analyst
steward/stewardess
publishing company editor
industrial information specialist
industrial safety director
window manufacturer representative
assistant editor for an encyclopedia company
department store purchasing agent
film producer
sales person for radio and television
travelogue promoter
director of advertising for fast food chain
hospital public information officer
telephone consultant
camera operator
advertiser
newspaper reporter or editor
minister
employee relations director
insurance agent
motel manager
college president
military recruiter
speech therapist
grocery store manager
graphics editor
vice president of personnel
college recruiter

The list is not nearly complete. The study of communication prepares students for many different areas of work by focusing on the knowledge, skills, and perspectives needed in many vocations. Good reasoning and evidence are needed

by all. Every person should be able to listen well. Every person should be able to express ideas clearly and precisely. Every person should be able to develop a lively style.

Obviously, some vocations, even in the list above, will need some specialized training beyond a college degree in communication. For example, a college graduate will need additional workshops or training sessions before becoming the manager of a motel in a national chain. Similarly, a graduate will receive additional training from a future insurance company employer. Yet, the focus of communication training on skills for working with people provides a solid foundation for many professions.

Some vocations also assume a degree of experience. You cannot graduate from college with a bachelor of arts degree in communication and expect to become a college president. You will need many years of experience as well as additional education before you will be considered eligible for the role of college president.

You can safely conclude from this discussion that, no matter what your vocation, you need a good understanding of and skill in communication. Communication is an important part of all roles in your calling: family member, spouse, employer or employee, citizen, church member, and student. Regardless of your major, you should continue your work in communication. Work hard to improve your ability to state your ideas clearly, to listen well, to make good ethical judgments, and to understand the role of communication in life.

Review Questions for Chapter 1

1. Define communication.
2. Define process (as it relates to communication).
3. Identify and describe each characteristic of the communication process.
4. What does each characteristic of communication mean for the public speaker? What does each mean for the listener?
5. What different tools or means does a person use when he communicates?
6. Explain how public address integrates all means or tools.

Chapter Two
Communication and Ethics

This chapter is about worldview and how it applies to public address. Wolters has defined worldview as "the comprehensive framework of one's basic beliefs about things."[1] Each person has a worldview which guides one's life. However, not all people are aware that they have a worldview. Perhaps they have not thought much about the organization of their beliefs. Sometimes they do not use their beliefs clearly when they make decisions. Another term commonly used to describe worldview is *perspective*. Perspective means how one looks at anything in life. It implies that a person has a particular starting point, a point of view. That perspective or worldview guides persons in their reactions to the culture around them. What decisions a person makes about choice of music, what to watch on television, how to act on a date, and what clothes to buy are based on his or her perspective. One can tell another's worldview by how he or she lives.

In this chapter we want to consider how different worldviews or perspectives lead people to make decisions about what is right and wrong in communication. In other words, this chapter is on the ethics of communication. Ethics is the scholarly discipline that deals with right and wrong, good and bad. Students of public address have paid attention to ethics for a long time. A variety of perspectives have been used to decide what is right or wrong, good or bad, in public address. These perspectives, which reflect particular worldviews, are sometimes called *normative standards;* the general standards or norms of what is thought to be correct. They provide guides for people to follow in making choices. Choices in communication range from deciding what methods to use in trying to influence another to deciding what content should be in one's communication. All communication has a moral dimension of right or wrong.

All people use an ethical perspective whether they are aware of it or not. Thus you must always be concerned with ethics in your communication. You should be fully aware of the ethical perspectives people use and what ethical perspective should guide your own communication choices. In the first part of the chapter we describe some popular perspectives which people use to decided what is right and wrong in communication.

In the second part of this chapter we will develop a view of ethical

[1] Albert M. Wolters, Creation Regained: Biblical Basics for a Reformational Worldview. Eerdmans, 1985, p. 2.

communication that is based on Scripture. Our position is that no techniques, such as gestures, change of volume, facial expressions, or arguments, are amoral; that is, without moral concern. There is always a moral dimension inherent (because of its nature) in all communication techniques. We ask you to consider our position carefully by asking several questions about it. These questions include: Does this position reflect a worldview that is clearly founded on Scripture? Does this position fit the standards for right and wrong that one finds in the Bible? Is this position consistent within itself? If this perspective were followed in people's lives, would their communication improve?

As you continue to develop your own Christian worldview and determine how it directs your communication, think about the values or beliefs that guide you. Sometimes people borrow values from different worldviews which contradict each other. For example, some Christians adopt the materialistic spirit of our culture even though it conflicts with the commands of Scripture not to have treasures that rust or decay. Work on consistency between your different values and beliefs and between your beliefs and your actions. We want you to be able to explain how you get from your starting point to an actual decision about a particular communication act.

A set of problems and situations at the end of the chapter call for ethical decisions. Be prepared to discuss these situations in class. Reflect on these cases as you develop your own position.

Legal Perspective

A very common position that is practiced by many people is one which bases decisions about morality (right and wrong) in the law. This perspective says that if something is legal in civil law (the laws of the state or country), it is ethical. So, if it is legal to use profanity, it is ethical. Or, if it is legal to say what you want at any time, it is then also ethical. This perspective goes a little further to say that if it is not specifically illegal, that is, if the law says nothing about it, then it must be morally acceptable. For example, since the law does not say anything about using vulgar language, those holding this perspective say it is all right to use it. On the other side, since the law says that we may not ruin the reputation of a person by lying, such communication is unethical from this point of view. People carry this one even further by suggesting that if you can get away with it without getting caught, then it is probably all right. The action might be illegal, but if one doesn't get caught, it is all right—what is illegal depends on whether the courts act on the

law.

Many people do indeed look to the civil and criminal law to teach them what is *morally* right. The law holds a central place in their worldview. Current radio talk shows denigrate freely the reputations of politicians. When the hosts of these programs are criticized for their lack of respect, they quickly point out that they are enjoying the freedom of speech guaranteed by the First Amendment. They justify their communication by pointing back to the law. Notice an example not related to communication—many people decided to go ahead and have abortions after the law changed. The United States Supreme Court decided to make abortions legal so people then went ahead and had abortions. If you would ask people if they *only* look to the law for their moral guide, they would probably deny it. In practice, however, they do look to civil and criminal law as their guide. We must recognize this teaching function of the law—that the law does teach what is right and wrong. However, the adequacy of civil laws for telling us what is right and good communication is very limited. This is the major problem with this perspective. Much communication is not covered by any local, state, or national laws.

Rationalist Perspective

This perspective for deciding what is ethical communication is grounded in a person's ability to reason. The rationalist perspective holds that if communication conforms to the rules of logic or if it conforms to what rational people would say, it is ethical. Reason reigns supreme as the highest principle in this worldview. Reason or logic is the essence of what it means to be human—reason makes us human. Rationalists view persons as primarily rational beings. Anything that is not rational does not fit with or subverts a person's basic nature and therefore would be unethical. Many scholars hold this position—both in communication and in the field of moral philosophy—which essentially says that communication must always appeal to reason.

The rationalist perspective would declare the following communication techniques to be unethical: illogical appeals, strong emotional appeals, heavy reliance on style for persuasive impact, appeals to the character of the speaker, or any technique that bypasses or demeans a person's ability to reason.

Problems with the rational perspective are not always easily recognized. Humans are rational beings. Most people would agree that communication should be rational. Reason is an important part of the communication involved in decision-making. Clearly we do not want *irrational* communication! However, the

rationalist perspective is reductionistic, because it raises the rational aspect of man as the *qualifying* aspect. It takes one part of being human and makes it the whole. This means rationalists claim that the essence of persons consists of their rational capacities—only reason makes them human.

In fact, people are much more than reason and may not be reduced to only rational beings. Persons are whole beings, which includes the emotional, physical, spiritual, social, and other aspects *in combination with* the rational aspect. Thus, this perspective, like the legal perspective, is too limited for justifying the right and wrong of communication.

Democratic Perspective

Probably the most popular of the various standards for evaluating communication arises from the democratic worldview. In the democratic worldview, the inherent dignity of the person is central. This position draws on values of a democratic society—equality of opportunity, free and open discussion, equality of individuals, belief in the inherent dignity of human beings, the right of freedom of information—as the basis for ethics. Ethical communication, in this view, becomes the servant of democracy. If communication does not promote these values, it is unethical. In some instances this position overlaps the rationalist position since the democratic position assumes that people are by nature primarily rational. As rational beings they must be given adequate evidence and reasoning so they can make a free choice. With free choice they decide their own destiny.

Speech communication textbooks frequently advocate a democratic basis for ethics. The purpose of speech, say those authors, is to enhance understanding so people can function effectively in a democratic society. A democratic government depends on an informed citizenry. Adherents to this view regard any communication that does not support democratic values as unethical.

This position also has problems. What would happen if a democratic society decided (democratically) that those values of equal opportunity, free speech, and freedom of information were not of high priority in society? Those who hold the democratic perspective are unable to answer this question satisfactorily. Even protection of minority rights by the Constitution does not ensure the promotion of democratic values if the majority changes its mind. It is quite possible that the people would decide by democratic debate that democratic processes should be replaced by non-democratic ones. For example, they could vote for a new constitutional amendment which restricts free speech.

The faith of this ethical system lies in the belief that all people wish to act democratically. This position assumes that our democratic society basically has correct values, that the democratic way yields the best decisions, and that basic democratic values will be supported. Speech, then, plays a fundamental role in maintaining democracy. However, not all democratic values are interpreted the same way. Nor are all people convinced that democracy always yields the best decisions.

Further, this view assumes that all communication relates to a political system, and that which is good for political institutions is also good for other institutions. In fact, much communication does not relate to the political arena. For example, schools and families are not democracies. They are different institutions. To make a family into a democracy could ruin the family. Therefore, what might be good communication in government could be bad communication in the family. The same could be true for the school, the church, and business. So you can see that this perspective is too narrow to provide an adequate basis for deciding ethical communication in all instances.

Another criticism of this position is that rationalism lies at the foundation of the democratic system. Democratic values are founded on the ability of each person to make rational choices and thus some of the criticisms raised about the rationalist position also apply here. This perspective is also reductionistic since it does not have a complete view of what a person is. Furthermore, the democratic position runs potential risks of individualism (when people assert their rights to selfish interests) and majoritarianism (when the majority of people believe is considered correct). Means of maintaining appropriate balance between these two extremes have yet to prove themselves consistently successful. A person's rights will be maintained provided the majority agrees that they should be maintained. This inherent problem of the democratic system for ethics appears to be without a solution.

Dialogical Perspective

Some scholars have maintained recently that ethical communication should be practiced as dialogue rather than monologue.[2] Dialogue, in their view, occurs when the speaker and listener have proper attitudes in mind. Attitudes conducive to dialogical communication include being completely genuine with another person, striving for accurate empathic understanding of the other person, having

[2] For a more complete description of what the dialogical perspective entails, see Charles Veenstra, "The Dialogical Approach to Interpersonal Communication," *Pro Rege*, XX, No. 3, 1-8.

unconditional positive regard for the other person (even if you disagree with his or her position), promoting a spirit of mutual equality that allows the other person to come to his or her own decision, and providing a supportive psychological climate in all communication. These dialogical attitudes suggest that persons must be completely open when they encounter others. This means that each person must be open to the possibility of being changed by the communication. They must avoid false fronts or any kind of manipulation. Honesty is important. Full concentration on the communication is required. One must try to empathize, to understand the other person from the his or her point of view. Each must affirm the personhood of the other. Dialogue, in this view, means more than two persons talking together—it involves two or more persons fully involved with each other in communication. These dialogical attitudes must be present in order for the communication to be ethical.

Sometimes the term dialogue is contrasted with monologue, a term suggesting a lack of concern by the speaker for the listener. Characteristics of monologue include self-centeredness, pretense, display, using others for one's own purposes, unapproachableness, domination, exploitation, and manipulation. These characteristics suggest that any time one engages in communication for his or her own benefit without much care for the other person, that person is communicating unethically. Monological attitudes frequently cause people to treat others as objects. An example of monologue is a politician who gets paid to deliver a commencement address at a college, but then he uses the speech to spell out his own ideas on foreign policy that he knows will be broadcast to the rest of the country. He cares little for the graduates and does not engage in genuine dialogue with them. Dialogue carries positive connotations; monologue—at least if it shuts out dialogue—is negative. In public address, speakers practice monologue when they give speeches they want to give regardless of the needs of the audience.

The dialogical perspective is gaining acceptance from many scholars. We can call it a worldview because proponents believe that people become human through dialogue. Only through dialogue, in their view, will humans be able to make the world a better place.

A major difficulty for the student who wishes to use this perspective is how to evaluate the attitudes of the other person in communication. Attitudes are primary in a dialogical view, so it is not a big step to then argue that the communication is ethical if *attitudes* are good (that is, in accord with the values listed in the previous paragraph). Whether the communication actually *demonstrates* dialogical attitudes appears less significant. If a person claims to have held these attitudes while

communicating, the critic could hardly deny this. In addition, one who holds the dialogical position should not engage in significant ethical criticism of the communication of another person who practices monologue. The dialogical perspective emphasizes that the communication must *not be judgmental*—or at the very least, this perspective emphasizes being supportive, even if judgments are made. If one can not always tell what attitudes the speaker held, the critic is trapped by two questions: Do I fully know the speaker's attitudes? and, Are my attitudes correct as I make this evaluation? The critic is open to the charge of not being *supportive, accepting,* or demonstrating *unconditional positive regard* for the other. It is very difficult to be non judgmental when one is making an evaluation. The respondent can always charge the critic with failing to understand. Thus the dialogical critic runs the risk of being called unethical from the dialogical point of view.

The dialogical view also assumes that persons determine their own selves and society through correct interaction. This view suggests that people can save themselves from their condition if only they would practice dialogue with other human beings. Notice that this view is more self-centered than it looks at first glance. To save *oneself* a person must engage in dialogue. The purpose of dialogue thus is ultimately directed so the self can survive. The dialogical position, which claims to be other-directed, appears, at its roots, to be self-centered. It is inconsistent within itself.

Unfortunately, some Christian scholars try to mix this perspective with a few Christian values and call it a Christian perspective. In fact, the roots of the dialogical perspective and the roots of a Christian view are fundamentally opposed to each other. Some of the values in the dialogical perspective, such as honesty, for example, should be promoted by Christians. However, they have a fundamentally different reason for promoting honesty which affects how honesty is put into practice. The dialogical view promotes honesty so that society can survive and all persons are free to become themselves. In contrast, Christians promote honesty to praise God and to live as they were created—persons who care for others and the rest of creation.

Utilitarian Perspective

Several perspectives rely heavily on the consideration of the consequences or results of the communication, and thus they are called *utilitarian.* If a technique is useful (or has *utility,* or good results) for society, it is ethical. Ethical techniques, in

this view, should promote the greatest good for the greatest number in the long run. When these people begin their consideration of right and wrong, they do not start with principles but rather with the effects of communication techniques. Some utilitarians take a few principles from one situation to another, but these principles are usually formulated in terms of *good consequences.* They say all ethical communication is that which has good consequences. If the consequences are bad, then the communication is regarded as unethical. For example, the arguments a speaker uses will be evaluated as poor only if they would have bad results when the audience hears them.

Much has been written by philosophers who maintain a utilitarian view of ethics. This view is attractive because all of us want good consequences to our communication. Yet, this view is not easy to apply to communication. Each person may have a different definition of *good consequences.* What criteria does one use to decide what *good* means? Should utilitarians be consistent with each other in their definitions? What if we disagree about the goodness of a particular consequence? Suppose that the salesman succeeds in selling a pistol to a teenager. Is that speech good? Some would say yes; others would say no. Unless utilitarians have a constant definition of *good* which can be applied to all situations, they become situationalists who consider each act's consequences individually.

Situational Perspectives

Situational perspectives for judging what is ethical communication share a common feature: absolute standards are usually avoided. Instead, the *context* of the communication plays the most important role in judging ethics. Situationalists deny there is a set of principles or norms that cross all times and all situations. Everything is relative, they would say. Standards vary in this perspective as people and the situations vary.

Those who promote situational ethics fear that absolute standards are too rigid. The way they try to solve this problem is to insist that the situation must be taken into account. Their excessive fear of standards results in an absence of guidelines for judging the situation and the consequences of the communication. There is no standard—everything is relative. Nothing is true for all situations or cases. The result is that each person has no complete or consistent perspective or worldview. People have difficulty integrating a situational system into their lives in a way that is consistent with the rest of their worldview.

We do not recommend situational perspectives. They do not provide

sufficient direction for students who need to make decisions about right and wrong in communication. Later in this chapter we will explain that the situation should be considered in determining how a principle gets implemented. We maintain that one should have principles that cross all situations, even if the principles are implemented in slightly different ways for different situations.

Religious Perspectives

We hesitate to use the term "religious" for perspectives which clearly ground their position on the ethics in their religion. All of life is religion and the perspectives described this far are just as religious as those discussed here. We use the term to refer to those which openly profess religious foundations.

Religious perspectives for the ethics of speech receive very little attention from most scholars of communication. Most often, religion is dismissed as a separate, private part of life that should not be confused with the scholarly or with Monday-through-Saturday public life. Scholars like to define religion very narrowly to include only a small part of life. They assume only a small portion of the people are religious. Those who go to church or work out their religion in churches are those who are regarded as religious. The rest are supposedly non-religious.

Even among some Christians, a narrow view of religion prevails. In a somewhat simplistic way, a common practice is to take only a few passages from the Bible that apply to speech. They turn these passages into a few principles which make the core of an ethical perspective for communication. People from other formalized religions also take sacred passages that apply to communication from their own religious literature.

The above description of various ethical perspectives does not exhaust all those found in speech journals. Nor does it exhaust the perspectives people use in practice. We described only the major points of view that dominate the speech communication field. And, as you will notice if you watch carefully, in practice people often mix perspectives together uncomfortably when they decide the ethics of a particular case.

If you find that none of the ethical perspectives described so far match your own ethical perspective, read on to discover our ethical perspective. We invite you to think about your own worldview as you consider ours.

We hold to a religious perspective, but not of the type described above. A

perspective of the ethics of communication grounded in a Christian worldview is very rare in written material on speech communication. Before you read the description of this perspective below, you may want to work through the exercises at the end of the chapter. The exercises will help you begin to think about the bases of your own position. After you have worked through the cases, you should determine what ethical perspective you are using to answer the questions. Are you consistent in using one ethical perspective, or do you find yourself using one ethical perspective for one type of case and another perspective for a different type of case? If you mix ethical perspectives, can you do this and remain intellectually sound? Please give careful thought to your own perspective before you move on to read about our perspective.

A View For This Book

A Christian view of ethics and communication should be based on biblical principles and their application to the field of communication. Scripture refers to communication and to those actions and motives considered right and wrong. For example, Ephesians 4:29 says: "Do not let any unwholesome talk come out of your mouths, but only what is helpful for building others up according to their needs, that it may benefit those who listen." James 3 speaks forcefully about the power of the tongue. However, we do not start with these passages. Instead, we begin with the creation of human beings in the image of God. God chose humans to bear His image, to mirror Him. Animals are not created in God's image.

The image of God means that humans are created for fellowship with God. That means that they must respond to Him in a way that glorifies Him. The very nature of a person is such that he or she cannot avoid responding to God in one way or another. All of a person's actions reflect that person's direction toward or against God. No action is neutral. Thus every act has a moral or ethical dimension of right or wrong. Our duty on earth is to image God by the way we act toward God, our fellow human beings, and creation. Scripture reading and prayer show direct fellowship with God. We also praise God in bagging groceries at the store, in studying a textbook, and in playing a game with brothers and sisters. We reflect God to others by obeying the principles for human communication which He laid in creation. For example, we believe that one of those principles is that our communication should build others up according to their needs. This principle was repeated by Paul in Ephesians 4:29. We image God by showing proper stewardship toward the creation by treating wisely the good gifts He gives us.

All of Scripture, which is the story of God's relation with His people, is our guide. Rather that selecting particular texts which speak about communication, we maintain that these texts are a reflection of the principles God laid in creation at the beginning, as indicated by the example noted in the previous paragraph. After sin came into the world, Paul found it necessary to say, "Do not let any unwholesome talk come out of your mouths, but only what is helpful for building others up according to their needs, that it may benefit those who listen." To help His people along the way, God reminds His people of these principles in Scripture. Surely these texts can and should be used to help us. Keep in mind, however, that they are a reflection of what God intended when He created us. Sin often clouds our view of how we were created to live with others. A major task of students of communication is to discover these principles—in creation and Scripture.

Figure 2.1 summarizes the concept of the image of God in human beings as it is developed in Reformed theology. It describes a person as essentially a religious being whose purpose is to mirror his or her Creator in all of life including communication. All of a person's communication indicates a response to God. A person cannot help but to responding God—whether this response be for God or against God—since one's nature is such that it is created for fellowship. Again, all of life is religious in character. That religious character, however, does not mean that all people believe in God. Instead, many create their own gods out of or for themselves. If they do not worship the true God, they are compelled by their nature to construct a new god. Persons stand in God's place to do the work He wants done in creation.

The Image of God in Human Beings

A Religious Being Created for Response to God.
God's Representative on Earth

Figure 2.1

Figure 2.2 outlines a set of principles based directly on the Reformed view of the image of God in people. The "overarching principle" assumes the sovereignty of God. This is the heart of the Christian faith that all is God's. God must be honored in all that people do. Notice also the integral place of communication in the creation of people. Communication is necessary for people to live in fellowship with God and with people. Communication links a person with God and people. In order for these relationships to exist, communication abilities were required. Without communication, a person could hardly respond to God or be a responsible

being. Without communication, a person could not live, society could not continue. Without morally correct communication, a person cannot live properly.

The first *basic principle* maintains that people ought to have a high view of the processes of communication. It requires that one try to understand the processes of communication and the ways that it influences people in ethically justifiable ways. Respect for communication itself implies that it must not be treated simply as a skill to be practiced after learning a few rules of what works. Communication should also be esteemed as more than a tool to be used for so-called "more important" things, such as ensuring that a business is profitable. Communication is fully as important as other aspects of creation; e.g., the social, the psychological. This principle means that one will not denigrate the communicative nature of a person.

Principles and Subprinciples Which Guide Communication

Over-arching Principle:

GOD MUST BE HONORED IN ALL COMMUNICATION

Basic Principles:

High View of Communication	Recognition of the Direction of People's Lives	Full Respect for Others

Subprinciples:

Honesty	Correct Attitudes Toward Others	Proper Word Choice	Respect for People's Intellect	Attempt to Satisfy Others' Needs

Figure 2.2

Instead one should promote correct understanding and proper exercise of communication in ways that show respect for people and for communication.

The second *basic principle*, "Recognition of the Direction of People's Lives," recognizes that persons were created to praise God. It requires recognition of the influence of communication on the direction of another person's life. No communication event should be seen as an isolated event—an event unrelated to a larger view of that person's life as a responding being. All communication influences the quality of that person's response to his or her created nature. The speaker must be concerned about the other person beyond simply the particular communication that is taking place. He should consider these questions: Am I influencing this person in right or wrong ways? What will be the long-term result

of my communication with this person? Am I helping this person to live more obediently before God? In what religious direction is this person headed? What am I doing about this direction? These questions give a flavor of what is required in this basic principle. Communication always influences those involved. Remember, all communication has a moral dimension—the dimension of direction for God or against God. However, this does not mean that all communication must be *about* God.

The third *basic principle* for ethical communication, based on the dignity persons carry because of their creation in the image of God, is that full respect must be given to all persons. Full respect is not based on *what a person has done,* but rather on *who that person is as a created being.* Persons are respected because they are religious beings who carry in their persons some likeness to God, however distorted that likeness may be. They are called to reflect God in their actions. Respect for His image in a person results in respect for God Himself as Creator. James, in Chapter 3, is quite precise on this point: "With the tongue we praise our Lord and Father, and with it we curse men, who have been made in God's likeness." The next verse stresses this incongruence: "Out of the same mouth come praise and cursing. My brothers, this should not be." Cursing people is unethical, because it involves cursing a person who bears the image of God and thus fails to show respect for them *and their Creator.* The thrust of the second half of the Ten Commandments is essentially a delineation of the kinds of activities that fail to demonstrate full respect for other people.

If people are considered as God's representatives on earth with a calling to rule in His place, then full respect should follow. *Full* respect is the term that combines all aspects and elements of the image of God that gives a person dignity. This perspective is not self-centered.

Several subprinciples, which serve as criteria for ethical communication, grow out of one or more of the basic principles. Five of these sub-principles are identified in Figure 2.2. Others might exist. Examples of how the subprinciples are implemented in practice are indicated in Figure 2.3 on the next page. Do not consider these examples of practices that demonstrate ethical communication to be a complete list. They are for illustrative purposes only. More could be listed. You should search for additional practices that show these principles and subprinciples in operation.

Subprinciples:

Honesty	Correct Attitudes Toward Others	Proper Word Choice	Respect for People's Intellect	Attempt to satisfy Others' Needs

Examples of Practices of Principles for Ethical Communication

tell good and bad	combine tact with honesty	eliminate profanity	use good reasoning & evidence	analyze audience
make faith assumptions clear	care for others	build others up	make emotional appeals consistent with evidence and reasoning	don't simply tell others what they want to hear
fit organization with content	ensure others' well-being	correct bad word choice	confess truth	consider needs
match verbal and nonverbal	promote others' reputation	avoid flattery	avoid fallacies	speak only on beneficial topics
etc.	be gracious	improve language	etc.	speak at their level
	etc.	etc.		etc.

Figure 2.3

The complete chart that combines Figures 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3 is given in Figure 2.4 on the next page. The basic assumptions are worked out into principles and practices as you read down the chart. It shows the relation of the basic assumptions of the Christian view of the nature of human beings to principles and subprinciples. It shows how principles and subprinciples for communication work out into actual practices that demonstrate ethical communication. The practices listed directly beneath each of the subprinciples illustrates how each of the subprinciples operate.

While this discussion of our view of ethics is brief, we want to clarify that our position on ethics is the foundation for our view of communication. Many speech communication textbooks place ethics into one chapter tacked on at the end. We think ethics should take priority in our work in communication. A significant part of one's worldview consists of standards for right and wrong. Ethics permeates and guides all the choices made in public address as well as all of communication. A more complete discussion can be found in several journal articles by us. Check with your instructor for more information. Finally, our basic ethical principles will serve as a foundation for the entire perspective of this book, and each part will come back to this foundation. Our worldview will be apparent throughout the remaining chapters.

CHRISTIAN ETHICAL PERSPECTIVE FOR COMMUNICATION

The Image of God in Human Beings

A Religious Being Created for Response to God:
God's Representative on Earth

Principles and Subprinciples Which Guide Communication

Over-arching Principle:

GOD MUST BE HONORED IN ALL COMMUNICATION

Basic Principles:

High View of Communication	Recognition of the Direction of People's Lives	Full Respect for Others

Subprinciples:

Honesty	Correct Attitudes Toward Others	Proper Word Choice	Respect for People's Intellect	Attempt to satisfy Others' Needs

Examples of Practices of Principles for Ethical Communication

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etc.	be gracious	improve language	etc.	speak at their level
	etc.	etc.		etc.

Figure 2.4

Review Questions for Chapter 2

1. Give one ethical implication of each characteristic of communication.
2. What is a perspective or ethical position?
3. Describe the following ethical perspectives and be prepared to supply an example of each:
   a. legal
   b. rationalist
   c. democratic
   d. dialogical
   e. utilitarian
   f. situational
4. How is each perspective listed above faulty?
5. Identify the over-arching principle, the basic principles, and the sub principles for ethics that dominate this text.
6. Why would it be incorrect to say that the starting point of the ethical perspective of this book is the ninth commandment? And, why would it be incorrect to say that the starting point of the ethical perspective of this book is the Golden Rule?
7. The textbook indicates that telling the audience only what they want to hear is unethical. Why?
8. The textbook states that bad word choice is unethical. Why?
9. According to the textbook, why is it wrong to use profanity?

Exercises

1. What is the <u>driving force</u> in each of the following perspectives for deciding what is right and wrong in communication?
   a. democratic
   b. situational
   c. rationalist
   d. dialogical
   e. legal

f. utilitarian

2. Identify significant <u>flaws</u> in each of the following perspectives for deciding what is right and wrong in communication?

   a. democratic
   b. situational
   c. rationalist
   d. dialogical
   e. legal
   f. utilitarian

3. Explain why each of these ethical perspectives is incompatible with a Christian perspective:

   a. democratic
   b. situational
   c. rationalist
   d. dialogical
   e. legal
   f. utilitarian

4. What ethical perspective is revealed by each of the following statements?

_____ "It's OK as long as I don't hurt anyone."

_____ "Most of the people in the country maintain that pornography involves freedom of speech, so that is the direction one must go."

_____ "That speech was not good because the speaker tried to undermine my own reasoning."

_____ "I'm not so sure it was wrong. You have to consider the circumstances when she decided to hit him."

_____ "If the customer doesn't ask to see the better quality product, don't show it to him. Try to sell him the cheaper one that's not on sale. You aren't doing anything wrong. It isn't against the law."

Chapter Three
Listening

Speaking is only one side of communication. The other side of communication is listening. An integral aspect of communication is receiving the speech—listening. This text represents an effort to expand the role of listening in education. Listening is gradually being recognized as crucial in communication. We placed this chapter on listening near the beginning of this book to demonstrate not only the importance of listening but also the stress listening should receive in public address.

Listening is not the same as hearing. Hearing is the physical activity of receiving the sound. It does not involve paying attention to or attaching meaning to the sound. Hearing is regarded as one of the first steps in the listening process. We also listen with our eyes by watching gestures and with our skin by feeling a touch or sound waves. However, if the process does not go beyond hearing or seeing or feeling, we cannot say that the person has listened. Hearing is automatic, listening is not. Therefore, in this chapter, we focus on listening rather than hearing, feeling, seeing, or smelling.

In this chapter we show the importance of listening in daily life. Next, our definition of listening will help explain the listening process. Then we explain different types of listening. The rest of the chapter offers help for improving listening skills. We explain differences between good and poor listeners, analyze a few false assumptions about listening, and provide several recommendations for the listener.

Importance of Listening

Although listening and speaking skills are necessary for the student, they appear to be even more significant after a student graduates from college. Wolvin and Coakley have found listening to be the most critical competency for managers, the most important communication skill for obtaining entry level positions and for career success for subordinates and managers alike, and the most important communication skill in the organization.[3] Managers rank listening skills at or near

[3] Wolvin, Andrew D. and Carolyn Gwynn Coakley, "A Survey of the Status of Listening Training in Some Fortune 500 Corporations," Communication Education, Vol. 40, April 1991, 153.

the top of their choices of desired skills. Hunt reports: "A recent survey of California business leaders conducted by the placement office of a university asked what skills these managers looked for in recent college graduates seeking employment. Nearly 80 percent of those surveyed placed listening skills among their top five choices. A majority felt that listening was the most important skill for a potential employee."[4] The California survey supports a previous study of employees in marketing ranked oral communication skills significantly higher than most other skills, including writing skills.[5] Educational institutions are now developing programs to teach listening at all grade levels. Departments of Education in many states are now encouraging the teaching of listening as well as other oral communication skills.[6]

The need for greater attention to listening can also be demonstrated by the amount of time people spend in communication (which is estimated at approximately 90 percent of their waking hours). On the average, 45 percent involves listening, 30 percent talking, 16 percent reading, and 9 percent writing. The amount of time most college students spend in listening is greater than 45 percent. They usually average 49 to 55 percent. These figures were arrived at by asking people to record, at half-hour intervals, how much estimated time they spent in each of these activities. Several of our past communication students have confirmed these percentages by keeping communication logs.

Although the amount of time spent listening is high, research demonstrates that listening skills decline as a student goes through the educational process: from 90 percent efficiency in the first grade, to 80 percent in the second grade, to 44 percent in junior high, and to 28 percent in high school.[7] Researchers estimate that the average adult listens with about 25 percent efficiency. Tests were done by having the teacher or speaker stop and ask: "What was I talking about?" If students could answer correctly, they were regarded as listening. Another way of stating this problem is that listeners use about 25 percent of their listening abilities. Whether college students listen better than the average adult is not clear, although

[4] Gary L. Hunt, *Communication Skills in the Organization* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1980), p. 63.

[5] Kenneth C. Schneider, "What Makes the Marketing Grad Employable?" *Journal of College Placement*, (Winter 1978), 31.

[6] Witkin, Belle Ruth, Sara Lundsteen, and Richard Gallian, "State Requirements for Listening in the Curriculum," Journal of the International Listening Association, Sp. Issue, 1993, 27-31.

[7] Carl H. Weaver, *Human Listening: Processes and Behavior* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1972), p. 14.

some evidence suggests they do. The evidence does not indicate that *abilities* decline as a person moves through the educational levels and as he or she grows older, but that listening *skills* do decline. Complicating this problem is that formal listening training is very minimal in educational institutions from kindergarten through high school. Given this inefficiency and lack of training, we have a significant responsibility to examine this process and to bring efficiency levels up.

Listeners frequently appear to lack a sense of responsibility for their own listening. Sometimes the speaker is blamed when listeners do not receive the intended message. Notice how often people complain about speakers rather than about their own poor listening habits. Of course, speakers should blame themselves first if their messages do not get across, but this hardly excuses listeners. If one accepts the idea that each person in the communication process is 100 percent responsible for the communication that takes place, then listeners cannot simply shift the blame to speakers.

Listening also promotes human relations. The people we like best are those who are willing to listen carefully to us. If you want friends, listen. A caution must be added—listening does not equal agreement or compliance. If someone does not agree with you, your first temptation is to accuse the other person of not listening, but this may not be the case. Because listening is vital in human relations, we should respect the process by understanding it and improving our skills in it.

Additional advantages of good listening skills for the student are:

- Listening enables the student to acquire the needed information.
- Listening has an influence on the development of other language arts. Improvement in listening skills can improve speaking, reading, and writing skills!
- Listening enables you to respond appropriately to the messages you hear.
- Listening enlarges your experience and certainly increases your enjoyment of life.
- Most of the time a student spends in class involves listening.
- Perhaps most significant, *everyone needs careful listeners.* Certainly, this is true in a class where many speeches are given, but it is equally true in interpersonal and other communication situations.

Definition of Listening

The International Listening Association has been working on a definition for a

long time. Scholars at the International Listening Association have agreed to use this definition: "Listening is the process of receiving, constructing meaning from, and responding to spoken and/or nonverbal messages."[8]

Lundsteen develops our understanding of the listening process. She says the proficient listener takes the following ten steps: "(1) hear, (2) hold in memory, (3) attend, (4) form images, (5) search the past store of ideas, (6) compare, (7) test the cues, (8) recode, (9) get the meaning, and (10) intellectualize beyond the listening moment."[9] Another way of saying it is: (1) we receive it, (2) we place it in short term memory, (3) we pay attention to it and check it over, (4) we form mental images with it, (5) we check it with our memory of other ideas, (6) we compare it to what we already know, (7) we test the words or ideas, (8) we place it into our own words, (9) we understand it, and (10) we use it afterwards. Lundsteen adds that while each step is taken in a given listening act, the steps do not necessarily occur in a rigid, set order. Overlapping, circling back, and almost simultaneous occurrence among the steps characterize this process. This definition helps us to better understand what listening involves. Lundsteen concludes that the best listener in any group "*is the person who most consistently, in the least time and in the greatest variety of circumstances, most closely comprehends the speaker's meaning in the widest variety of spoken material.*"[10] From her point of view, the best listener "is also capable of using his or her listening skills with the *widest range of thinking processes.*"[11] We believe it is more helpful to think of listening and thinking as working together but not as identical. If you wish to pursue your understanding of these processes as Lundsteen explains them, you may wish to read her book which we highly recommend.

A similar way to understand listening is to think of it as four connected activities: sensing, interpreting, evaluating, and responding, as Steil, Watson, and Barker have done.[12] **Sensing** is the first activity and is basic to the other three. It involves physically receiving the messages—verbal or nonverbal. The second activity, **interpreting**, involves the internal process of assigning meaning to

[8] "A ILA Definition of Listening," *Listening Post*, 56 (Spring 1996), p. 1.

[9] Sara W. Lundsteen, *Listening: Its Impact on Reading and the Other Language Arts*, rev. ed. (Urbanna: NCTE/ERIC, 1979), p. 18.

[10] Lundsteen, p. 74.

[11] Lundsteen, p. 74.

[12] Lyman K. Steil, Larry L. Barker, and Kittie W. Watson, *Effective Listening: Key to Your Success*. (Reading,. MA: Addison-Wesley, 1983), p. 21.

stimuli that have been received. They note that persons often misinterpret the other's message while each assumes that a common understanding has been achieved. The third activity goes beyond sensing and interpreting to **evaluating**. In this step, they say, the active listener weighs the evidence, sorts fact from opinion, and decides whether or not to agree with the speaker. Finally, they argue that for the listening process to be complete, the listener must **respond** in some way. They explain that these four activities must be taken in order. They recommend that listeners follow these four activities. We find this model helpful for understanding the listening process and explaining it to others.

We maintain, along with most scholars in this field, that listening must include evaluation and response. Of course, listening includes purposes other than evaluation, but one cannot escape the evaluation process. Liking or disliking, preferring this one or that one, or favoring or disfavoring, are all part of thinking processes. Furthermore, the definition of communication itself necessitates response—even if it is not an oral one. Without response, there is no communication. Therefore, to include response as part of the listening process is necessary. The ethical communicator must provide an appropriate response to messages in order for communication to function as it was intended.

By keeping the four processes of sensing, interpreting, evaluating, and responding in mind, you can quickly see at what point the listening process falters and where to improve listening. For example, notice how often persons jump to the evaluation of a message before they understand fully what the speaker has said. If that happens, listening breaks down at the interpretation step in the process. One can then caution listeners to wait with evaluation and response until they fully understand.

You should remember both the definition of the International Listening Association and the four-step process as identified by Steil, Watson, and Barker. Both help us understand what listening is.

You should be able to see now that listening is far more complicated than hearing. Listening should be thought of as a process of attending fully to the message *and the person.* Furthermore, as you will see later, listening is a very active process (hearing is more passive) and requires a large amount of energy and effort if one is to listen well. Do not ask whether you want to expend that energy and effort. Rather, remember that the speaker deserves full respect, and careful listening is one way of providing respect. Furthermore, the rewards of careful listening are worth the energy and effort spent.

Special Types of Listening

Listening needs vary in different situations. Some situations require one type of listening while others require a different type. Before providing how to improve listening across most situations, we will explain some of the common types of listening.

• *Appreciative Listening*

The primary purpose of this type of listening is to enjoy or to esteem the aesthetic or artistic value of a presentation. This type of listening occurs, for example, in theater or music. Many speeches also require appreciative listening; that is, the audience should listen for enjoyment and for the beauty of form that the speech contains. This type of listening is not simply sitting back and enjoying. It involves careful attention to gain the full value of the speech or melody.

Improving skills in appreciative listening requires learning more about the type of work being presented. You can appreciate a speech more if you know something about the subject matter and realize the research that has been completed in the preparation of a speech on this topic. If you understand the requirements for organization, supporting material, and delivery, you are in a better position to appreciate the speech. For example, until you have studied language quite carefully, you can hardly appreciate the speeches of Adlai Stevenson who was a master of language. Thus, studying the components of good oral style increases appreciation for Stevenson's speeches.

There is no substitute for exposure to important speeches and works of art if you are to improve your appreciative listening. By exposure you begin to pay attention to details, to form, to content, to main themes, and to the direction of the speech. Develop an attitude of wanting to learn more about the art form. Willingness to learn is essential. Growth in appreciative listening does not happen automatically. Through extensive exposure you begin to learn what you like and your standards of what is good will become more sophisticated.

• *Discriminative Listening*

This type of listening is usually associated with distinguishing aural stimuli. Often it is the type of listening you do in class or other places of learning. You gather messages and begin to think of relationships and differences among the

messages. You practice this type of listening to obtain information and to organize that information. Perhaps the easiest way to explain this type of listening is to say that you do it when an informative speech is given. You not only gather information, but you also distinguish between people's voices. You learn to detect various emotions that are part of messages. You separate key points from less important material.

Improving discriminative listening involves several techniques. First, learn to recognize and differentiate key points in the speaker's message. If the speech is well organized, these key points will be the main points of the speaker's outline. If the speech is not well organized, one can determine the main points by noticing how much time the speaker gives to particular points and how he or she emphasizes them. Try to detect the speaker's organization. Improving discriminative listening also occurs when we notice relationships among ideas in a speech.

Another technique for improving discriminative listening is to increase understanding of how the voice is used to reinforce or contradict the message. A later chapter on voice will help you understand various characteristics of voice.

• *Comprehensive Listening*

This type of listening overlaps with the types described above. Essentially, comprehensive listening goes beyond discriminative listening in an attempt to understand as closely as possible the speaker's message. The listener should be able to repeat to the speaker what has been said. If not word for word, then at least the listener's meaning ought to be the same as the speaker's. Remembering is an important part of this process. Wolvin and Coakley explain that much of the educational process is based on comprehensive listening, which has received the most attention by researchers in the field of listening.[13] A major purpose of listening in speech class is to comprehend the messages of speakers. Comprehensive listening is easily checked. A pretest is given before the speech, and a post-test is given when the speaker has finished. If the score on the post-test is significantly higher than the pretest, you can say the person has listened well.

We can offer some advice for improving this type of listening. Excellent suggestions for listening will be offered later in this chapter. If you practice them carefully, you will find that your comprehensive listening will improve significantly in most cases.

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[13] Andrew D. Wolvin and Carolyn Gwynn Coakley, *Listening*, 3rd. ed. (Dubuque, IA: Brown, 1988), p. 189.

Also, you should: resist distractions from the environment and the speaker, listen for main points, pick out significant details, avoid faking attention, expose yourself to difficult material, and perhaps take notes.

However, the advisability of note-taking is disputed by some. They believe that it is not a listening activity, but others say it helps listening. Note-taking often interferes with listening because the note-taker is so interested in getting all the details on paper that he or she fails to comprehend the full message of the speaker. Thus, the note-taker often listens for the facts rather than the trends, interpretations, or main theses of the speaker. On the other hand, if notes are taken only sparingly, they can help the receiver to remember key points of the speaker's message. Note-taking must not replace careful listening, but it can assist the listener. Part of the preoccupation with note-taking may be due to our print-oriented culture. We remember being impressed when a waitress in a large Chicago hotel took our orders without writing anything. She then delivered our orders exactly as we gave them. She was a very competent listener.

• *Evaluative Listening*

This type is often called critical listening. Here the listener goes beyond comprehending the message to an evaluation of the message. As indicated above, this evaluation should only come after the listener has fully comprehended the message. The listener makes a judgment concerning whether the message is good or bad, right or wrong. Listeners evaluate the quality of evidence offered by the speaker. The critical listener examines the connections between the claim a speaker makes and the support he or she offers for it. In so doing, the listener asks whether the claim can be justified. Critical listeners decide whether speakers use appropriate persuasive appeals. Not only do they examine messages, but they probe techniques speakers employ. They give their assent only after carefully evaluating the entire communication.

While it may sound as if critical or evaluative listening is negative or non-supportive of the speaker, you must remind yourself that evaluation can be positive. When speakers use appropriate and correct techniques to bring worthwhile messages, you must evaluate positively. However, there are also many claims to which you should not yield. Be a responsible listener by evaluating carefully as you listen. We are daily flooded with messages that seek to persuade us to change.

Techniques for improving critical or evaluative listening are explained in later chapters on evidence and reasoning. Critical thinking should be regarded as a

logical part of listening.

Be alert to propaganda techniques that abound. Notice how speakers seek to persuade. Examine their techniques carefully. Study critically the support people give for their positions, the claims they make, and the ways they connect claims to support. Determine your own standards for what is right and wrong, good and bad. Understand clearly the basis for your standards, and be able to support your standards. Then you can evaluate the messages you hear.

• *Therapeutic Listening*

This type of listening is not an important part of class work in public address. This type usually involves letting another person talk through his or her problems. Consequently, it is more appropriate to interpersonal or counseling settings. It involves trying to understand and support the other person without forcing one's own ideas on the other.

Typically, the advice offered for improving therapeutic listening is to avoid evaluative feedback. You must try to understand the other person and then give feedback that is probing, understanding, and supporting. This type of listening is very important, but it is also a difficult one to learn. Everyone needs caring listeners. Be alert to this need. All of us need to talk through certain problems, and to do that we need a person who cares for us.

Differences Between Good Listeners and Poor Listeners

Several researchers have studied the differences between good listeners and poor listeners to learn what recommendations for improving listening can be drawn from these differences. Nichols (one of the first major researchers of listening) and Stevens found these differences among college students who were good listeners and poor listeners:

» Poor listeners, after hearing a few sentences, usually decide the material will be dull. Good listeners are more patient.

» Poor listeners often find immediate fault with the personality or the delivery of the speaker.

» Poor listeners listen best when the speaker's message is carefully outlined. Good listeners have several systems of taking in the material.

» Poor listeners listen mainly for facts. Good listeners are more likely to seize upon generalizations, trends, interpretations, and applications.

» Poor listeners have less experience in difficult listening. They are television watchers (particularly of easy-to-follow programs). Good listeners are inclined to give even more attention as the speaker's reasoning becomes more complex.[14]

Kelly finds the following differences. Good listeners are more adventurous (receptive to new ideas), mature, stable (emotionally), and sophisticated. They tend to be more outgoing, enthusiastic, trustful, self-controlled, and intelligent. Poor listeners are aloof, glum, lax, dull, emotional, tense, submissive, timid, suspecting, and simple.[15] Kelly wants to help people realize what poor listeners are like, and thus he thinks they would not want to be placed in that category. He regards this as the first step toward improving listening.

The above two lists identify some problems poor listeners face. The list by Nichols and Stevens particularly helps to identify what poor listeners do, and therefore, how to try to avoid them. The characteristics of good listeners, on the other hand, are those you should seek to develop for yourself.

False Assumptions About Listening

Most textbooks on listening begin with a description of false, but commonly held, assumptions about listening. Several of these are described below along with an explanation of why they are false.

• *Bright people listen well and dull ones listen poorly.*

Exactly what this false notion means is not clear. Listening and intelligence are not *necessarily* related. We should not assume that good

[14] Ralph G. Nichols and Leonard A. Stevens, "Listening to People, *Harvard Business Review,* 35 (Sept-Oct. 1957), 84-92. See also their book *Are You Listening?* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957.

[15] Charles M. Kelly, "Empathic Listening" in *Small Group Communication: A Reader,* edited by Robert S. Cathcart and Larry Samovar (Dubuque, IA: Brown, 1970), pp. 257-58.

listeners always have high I.Q. scores. Nor can we simply say one is a poor listener because of a low intelligence score.

- *Poor listeners have poor hearing ability.*

  While this may be true for a few people, it is false for most. A few children have physical hearing problems, but the percentage is probably far less than for adults. Sometimes what is regarded as a hearing problem is probably more often a listening problem. Usually one's hearing ability is good, but listening skills need improvement.

- *Training is unnecessary because everyone gets so much practice in listening.*

  This notion is as bad as saying that we all communicate so therefore there is no need for anyone to take a communication course. We all get much practice, but practice in doing it incorrectly will not improve listening. We need training in doing what will help improve our listening skills.

- *Learning to read well automatically improves listening.*

  This false assumption seems to be held even by some teachers. But the two activities are quite different from each other even though both involve processing language. Listening is done between at least two persons, while reading is done individually. Furthermore, a reader can recheck messages, but the listener has only one chance to get the meaning. And, the listener must attend to nonverbal communication. Thus the listener uses more senses than the reader who needs to pay attention only to the words on the page. Far more stimuli reach the listener than the reader.

- *Consequences of careless listening are minimal.*

  The assumption here is that a person misses little by failing to listen. However, it is silly to assume that because the person simply does not realize what he or she has missed. The poor listener has no idea of the significance of the missed message. Business managers are becoming much more sensitive to the costs of poor listening.

These false assumptions create inefficient listeners and are usually made by people who are unaware of what good listening involves. Evidence for these false

assumptions does not exist. Practice of these assumptions leads to bad attitudes about listening. Therefore, an important first step in improving listening skills is to become aware of false assumptions. Have you held these assumptions in the past? How do you react to people who listen poorly? What are you doing when you are listening?

Recommendations for Improving Listening

Awareness of what is involved in the listening process is the first step toward improving listening. Being alert to the common misconceptions surrounding listening will help you to recognize when mistakes are being made in listening. Nevertheless, awareness by itself will not bring improvement in listening skills. You must now work at certain practices to sharpen your skills. These practices are described next.

- *As a listener, you should improve your own motivation rather than expect the speaker to motivate you.*

Kelly makes a strong argument that people do have sufficient listening abilities.[16] However, because they lack motivation, their efficiency is low. He offers the following six suggestions for listeners to improve their own motivation. Try to memorize these suggestions and then put them into practice.

a. "Remember the characteristics of the poor listener." No one likes the characteristics of the poor listener described earlier: dull, glum, etc. Kelly thinks that if we keep this rule in mind, we will be more motivated to listen.
b. "Make a firm initial commitment to listen." This commitment is extremely important. Listening must be an active process. One cannot assume that listening will automatically happen. If you make that firm initial commitment to listen, you will soon find yourself carrying out that commitment. It becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy.
c. "Get physically and mentally ready to listen." Eliminating distractions, developing proper posture, and maintaining mental alertness are prerequisites to responsible listening.
d. "Concentrate on the other person as a communicator." Think of the

[16] Charles M. Kelly, "Empathic Listening" in *Small Group Communication: A Reader*, edited by Robert S. Cathcart and Larry Samovar (Dubuque, IA: Brown, 1970), pp. 257-58.

speaker as a real person who has something of worth to be communicated to you. Full respect entails listening to another. Concentrate on the person first, then the message.

e. "Give the other person a full hearing." A real temptation is to find something in another's speech with which you disagree. When that happens, the tendency to avoid listening takes precedence over waiting until he or she has finished. Withhold criticism until the speaker has had a complete opportunity to explain.

f. "Use analytical skills as supplements to, not instead of, listening." This one is particularly difficult because we can listen several times faster than a person normally speaks. The listener is lured easily into beginning to argue mentally with the speaker or simply analyzing arguments before the speaker is finished. Frequently this analysis occurs before the listener has a complete understanding of the speaker's message. You can easily become distracted because the speaker's words are coming too slowly for your mind. What you should be doing in that so-called *spare time*, is asking questions: How do the parts of the speech fit together? Am I sure I understand the speaker's positions correctly? Why is the speaker saying that? Ask these questions to help you listen rather than to argue during the speech. There will be plenty of time to argue later. Arguing reasonably has its place, but not during a speech. Nor should you interrupt a speaker so you can lead him or her in a different direction.

• *Implement a caring attitude in your listening.*

This idea relates closely to the six suggestions Kelly offered above for improving listener motivation. Instead of beginning to analyze and argue with the speaker *before* the speaker has finished, the listener *cares* enough for the speaker as a person to wait with analysis and argument until the speech is finished. Often people find a point in a speech with which they disagree, and they spend their time determining their response to that particular point. Then they miss much of the rest of the speech. A caring attitude in listening involves a listener trying to understand, as much as possible, the speaker *from the speaker's point of view first.* Only after the listener has understood the entire message and has tried to sense the speaker's perspective, should he or she analyze and perhaps develop arguments against it. The attitude of care for the other as image bearer must permeate all listening.

• *Keep your emotions under control.*

Certain speakers, topics, and words often trigger a quick, emotional response in listeners. Unfortunately, many people assume that emotions happen all by themselves, and we do not have much control over them. Therefore, when a certain emotion is triggered, it blocks that person's listening. Perhaps the listener will become angry with something the speaker has said and then not listen to the rest of the message.

Emotions can hinder listening in at least two ways. First, the listener allows a positive emotion toward the speaker or topic to overwhelm what the speaker has actually said. The listener might assume that the speaker made certain points that were not actually stated. Second, negative emotions can block listening to the entire speech.

You can, however, retain control over your own emotions. One important way to do this is to recognize what kinds of people, topics, and words trigger an emotional reaction in yourself. Try to understand why you develop these reactions. Then withhold judgment until you are sure that you have listened carefully to the speaker and understand his or her position completely. Then an emotional reaction might be in order, but only when you are in full control of your emotions. Emotions are important and necessary. However, you should control your emotions rather than letting them control you. Another way of making the same point is to say that if you do not control your emotions, someone else will control them for you. Advertisers are paid very well to learn how to manipulate listeners' emotions.

• *Put the principle of full respect for the other person into practice.*

Treat the other person as you would want to be treated. Full respect entails that you listen carefully in an attempt to understand the speaker fully. Only then can you give an appropriate response. Full respect improves the communication process and helps the direction of the lives of both speaker and listener.

Conclusion

Listening is crucial in the communication process. People are required to listen for a large percentage of the day, but many listeners are inefficient.

Improving listening skills is essential. Responsibility as creatures who respond to God involves careful listening to respond appropriately to messages and speakers. Careful listening is a mandate.

Several exercises are available to help you improve your listening skills. Speech classes are excellent opportunities to work hard on listening skills. Do not assume, however, that if you complete the exercises satisfactorily, your listening skills will remain at the improved level. You must continue to work hard to maintain your listening skills, or you will soon slip back to where you were. Maintenance of listening skills is a life-long task, but it is worth it.

Much more could be said about listening. The International Listening Association was formed in 1979 to disseminate information about listening and to stimulate more research into this vital communication area. It publishes the *International Journal of Listening* and holds annual conferences to publicize the research on listening. A fair amount of research has already been done in several disciplines, and it is being coordinated by a dedicated group of scholars. In the next decade, attention to the theory and practice of this communication process will likely grow. Learn all you can about the process and ways to improve.

Review Questions for Chapter 3

1. Compare the amount of time spent in listening with that in other communication activities.
2. What is the difference between hearing and listening?
3. How and why do faulty assumptions about listening cause poor listening?
4. What techniques can the speaker use to help his audience to listen more attentively?
5. Is note-taking a listening activity? Explain your answer.
6. Describe the process of listening.
7. What is the present level of importance of listening in education? in business?
8. Why is listening important?
9. What are some differences between good listeners and bad listeners?

10. What are some false assumptions about listening and why are they false?

11. Explain the five types of listening.

12. What can one do to improve his or her listening?

13. How can one improve his or her motivation to become a better listener?

Discussion Questions on Listening

1. Can you identify at least five bad listening habits that you find yourself or other people using?

2. What techniques have you used to improve your own listening?

3. How much training have you had in listening?

4. What attention are you giving to your communication skills (particularly listening) as you prepare for your career?

5. Does note-taking help or hinder listening? Is note-taking a listening activity?

6. One of the reasons you have for being at college is to prepare you to live with family and friends. What attention are you giving to your communication skills that are designed particularly for those non-vocational, but fully as important, situations? Are you working at learning how to listen to a spouse, or child, or friend?

Chapter Four
Speech Preparation

As with most activities, there are good ways and poor ways to prepare a speech. How one prepares a speech depends upon attitudes toward speech, knowledge and use of the procedure to prepare a speech, and practice.

A speaker's attitude toward public address is important for speech preparation and for success as a speaker. Some common, but wrong, attitudes toward public address are described here. Try to recognize the various attitudes, to become aware of the problems created, and to avoid them.

Gift of Gab

"I've always had a way with words. I loved my junior high English class because we gave lots of speeches. And in high school, I was in forensics. I won three ribbons and two trophies in impromptu speaking and did a pretty good job in informative speaking. I aced my high school speech course. Speaking is simple. All you do is think of a topic, talk about it with a friend, write down a few words on a card, and get up and talk."

The problem with this approach is that it mixes attitudes toward oneself (degree of self-confidence) with a method of speech preparation. While one should have some self-confidence, this attitude assumes that some success in the past will guarantee success in the future. However, this speaker may find that he or she is not successful at the college level or in public. Then, failure is blamed on the audience. These speeches usually sound like conversation with many cliches, poor choice of words, and poor organization due to rambling. Gestures usually are vague and repetitious. Good evidence and solid argument are missing.

No Sweat

"I've got the system. Think of a subject—something you like. Do a little reading. Write down a few ideas. Get up and talk. Don't worry about stage fright—just talk to them like you talk to your buddies. Otherwise, think of them as cabbage heads. All you see when you look up are heads

with ears. Who cares what they think anyway! All you're after is to get the job done and get a B."

"No sweat" people place their faith in a system—how to handle the task and get a grade without losing face. Several problems exist in this approach. First, speakers who hold this attitude do not believe in true communication. To look at the audience as cabbage heads is to hide in the garden and avoid people. They violate the creation of people in the image of God. Second, these speakers place the purpose of their speeches on getting the job done and getting a grade without consideration of methods appropriate to the audience and the situation. According to them, the end justifies the means. They deny the real goals of communication and substitute an improper goal—the grade. The goal of improving one's talents is ignored.

WRMS

"*W*rite it. *R*ead it. *M*emorize it. *S*peak it. The best way to handle the public address situation, when you have to do it, is to use this method. Then you can give the speech and be done with it. Speaking is not fun. It's worrisome and nerve-wracking. Memorize it, so you don't stumble about and look dumb."

While this view takes the public address situation more seriously than the "No Sweat" people, and it reveals a more realistic attitude toward self-confidence than Gift of Gab, it demonstrates some problems. First, the technique does not show proper consideration for the research and practice needed for a good public address. Nonverbal elements of gestures, facial expression, body movement, and visual aids are not considered. Finally, those who use this approach fail to recognize the major hazard of a memorized speech: forgetting. To forget a word, phrase, or sentence can cause an attack of stage fright or speech anxiety and can result in loss of the entire speech.

Inspiration or "Just Pray"

"In preparing for a speech or sermon, I find my text, I read it, I study the

commentaries, I outline it, and then I pray for the Holy Spirit and God's inspiration to help me. My speeches are inspired and dynamic."

Before commenting on this attitude and technique, we must first say that we firmly believe in asking for the Lord's help and guidance in our daily tasks as teachers, students, speakers. Prayer for guidance, strength, and understanding is necessary. On the other hand, prayer is not a substitute for work. The inspiration perspective often results in last minute pleas for help when speakers have not completed their own responsibilities. Students often find that procrastination or neglect makes last minute preparation and practice necessary. You obviously would not permit the college basketball team to start the season with one or two practice sessions and prayer. You should not enter an examination day with a prayer and no study. Speakers who use this technique are irresponsible before God and cannot expect a dramatic rescue by God.

Proper preparation for a public address calls for a realistic attitude toward your responsibilities. Practice is essential in developing your talent. Follow a good procedure to guarantee that you complete the task as well as possible. Audiences insist on responsible speakers. They do not like simplistic inspiration, "gift of gab" attitudes, or "No Sweat" confidence. The procedure recommended for preparation of a speech is as follows.

Steps to Follow in Preparing a Speech

Although not all speeches require the same steps of preparation, the following steps are an excellent guide. In most cases, you will find that these steps are appropriate for your assignments. Most of the steps will be explained more fully throughout the course, but enough is given here to get you started.

- Analyze the audience and the situation.
  More specifically, you should ask these questions:
  - √ Who is the audience?
  - √ What are their needs?
  - √ What can I do to satisfy their needs?
  - √ What kind of speech does the situation require?
  - √ How large is the audience?
  - √ In what type of room am I speaking? Will I have to use a public address system?

Many other questions could be asked, and you will discover these as you continue to prepare. More questions will be offered in the chapter on audience analysis. The important point here is that you consider the audience *before* you decide on a topic or subject area.

- Determine the subject.
  Later, you will examine methods of choosing topics. Look to your own experience and interests after you have considered the audience. Another important point—you should form a thesis or purpose statement early in your preparation. Always try to form the thesis statement in terms of the response you desire from your audience, e.g., "I would like to have the audience understand the danger of sunbathing."

- Research the subject.
  There are several ways to do this step, and you should not limit yourself to the traditional research methods you use for research papers. Here are some suggestions
  - √ Your own experience is a valuable source, which you should not overlook. Students are often experts in an area about which the rest of the class is poorly informed.
  - √ You are already familiar with library research. Turn first to the indices that will yield the kind of information for which you are looking. Computer searches are important starting points. Don't be afraid to ask the library staff for help. They will be happy to provide it.
  - √ Interviews with people provide another important source. Friends and associates might be experts in some area in which you are interested. Possibly some professors on campus have information that would help significantly in a speech. An important matter that must be inserted here is the absolute necessity of documenting your sources of information. Footnoting is as crucial in speeches as it is in papers! Plagiarism is the worst academic sin that one can commit. Not only is it wrong; it has ruined the reputations and careers of scholars.

- Organize and write the speech.
  Another chapter will deal extensively with organization. You are encouraged to write out parts of the speech. Write out the thesis statement, the outline, the introduction, and the conclusion. Often writing out parts of the speech helps the speaker to consider carefully what to present.

- Practice orally.
  When your speech is reasonably prepared, practice it aloud. This does not mean going over it in a corner of the library quietly mouthing the words to yourself. Instead, go some place where you can speak aloud and gesture freely. Bathrooms provide excellent places to practice speeches. Usually these rooms are not occupied long and seldom will you find someone else studying there. Furthermore, you can stand in front of the mirror and evaluate your own performance. Since bathroom walls are usually hard, your voice will sound pretty good—even better than it does in class! Sometimes students will use a vacant classroom to practice a speech. Oral practice also gives you a chance to better test your ideas.

- Rewrite the speech.
  Seldom is a speech written well the first time. After you have heard it orally, you will likely want to make some changes. When you write it again, pay close attention to word choice and to selection of materials. A problem with some speakers is that they fall in love with what they have written the first time and have a difficult time throwing anything out. Resist the temptation to keep everything. Throwing out some materials, some phrases, and some words gives you the opportunity to put something better in its place. Having to rewrite a speech several times should not surprise you. An excellent speech does not come without much effort, but with effort, the results prove worthwhile.

- Put the essential points on 3 x 5 or 4 x 6 note cards.
  This practice, particularly for beginning speakers, forces you to become familiar with the speech. It also gives you the freedom to gesture and to make eye contact with the audience. Use only one side of two or three note cards. Put on the cards only what is necessary to help you

remember what you have prepared. With adequate preparation, a few notes are all that is necessary. You will soon find that this technique works well. Writing out entire speeches slows your development of speaking skills.

- Practice *orally* until you are reasonably satisfied with the speech. Pay close attention to delivery—gestures, eye contact, facial expression, posture, movement, and voice. Again, speaking before a mirror is a good idea. Another good idea is to invest in a cassette recorder. Taping your speeches helps you check your presentation. You may not like to hear yourself give a speech the first time you play back the tape, but you will soon get used to it. The recorder is an excellent teaching device.

Types of Speech Delivery

The procedure that you just read fits well with the extemporaneous type of delivery. The other general types of speech delivery are impromptu, memorized, and manuscript. Each type has its advantages and its disadvantages.

Impromptu

Impromptu speech delivery usually occurs in forensic contests and in some situations in society. One example would be the surprise award. The award recipient has only the time it takes to walk to the podium to prepare an acceptance speech. Even though there is little time to prepare, it must still have adequate organization, proper style, and good nonverbal communication. The impromptu delivery has the somewhat dubious advantage of no time spent on preparation, but that also introduces its many disadvantages. The impromptu speech cannot be practiced so the nonverbal element tends to be restricted and to indicate nervousness. It is often not coordinated with the verbal element. Organization frequently rambles, and reasoning cannot be complex. Evidence is usually missing. Impromptu speeches demand quick thinking and close observation of your own delivery to be successful. Most beginning speakers have problems with such demands, but it can be a valuable exercise for getting started in a public speaking class.

Memorized

The memorized speech has the advantage of precision in word choice and style. It also allows speakers greater freedom of movement away from notes and greater use of eye contact and gestures, but these advantages are seldom realized unless speakers memorize nonverbal elements also. Memorized speeches are often recognized as memorized by the lack of liveliness and sincerity in facial expression and tone of voice. Other disadvantages accrue as well. It takes time to memorize and practice this form of delivery, but the major problem is loss of memory. Some speakers forget one line or word which causes an awkward ad lib or panic and loss of the rest of the speech. This is embarrassing.

Manuscript

The third form of delivery is the manuscript. The speaker writes out the speech and then reads it. Like the memorized speech, the manuscript speech permits careful choice of words and the development of style. Many Presidential addresses are manuscript so that precision or ambiguity are carefully developed for the varied audience of supporters, citizens, opponents, and foreign governments. The manuscript speech also allows for greater practice of nonverbal movements. While many beginning speakers like to use this delivery because they think it gives them security, they often forget to incorporate style and practice. The manuscript inhibits good eye contact. Facial expression becomes the bland facial expression of one that is reading. Gestures and movement are prevented because the speaker must focus on and be within reading distance of the manuscript. All analysis of the audience, which is determining audience reaction and responding to it, *during* the speech is restricted. For a manuscript speech to work well, the speaker needs long practice or experience and partial memorization.

Extemporaneous

The last form of speech delivery is the extemporaneous. In this form the speaker uses only notes or an outline with some parts, such as quotations, written out. Word choice and nonverbal elements are adapted to the speaking situation. This delivery has the disadvantage of possible less precision in word choice. Also some points might be missed or forgotten during the delivery. It places greater

demand on practice time. However, it has some important advantages. The speaker can more easily adapt to the demands of the speaking situation. Eye contact with the audience will tell the speaker when to go back, to explain in different words, or to skip parts known to the audience This form is the closest to the interaction of people during conversation. Another advantage is that the ability to handle this form will enable you to better use the other forms. If you can speak well extemporaneously, then the impromptu form becomes more attainable. If you can handle the extemporaneous speech, then you can adapt to other situations, audiences, and occasions more easily. We recommend this form of delivery because it forces you closer to good communication, because it results in better analysis of and response to the audience, and because it better prepares you for other speaking situations. You will notice that we recommend this form of speech in our guidelines for preparing the speech, the procedure for practicing the entire speech, and even in the later discussion of audience analysis.

Speech Topics

Many students of public address report that one of the most difficult activities in the course is finding a speech topic. The task becomes more difficult as the semester progresses, because many topics are taken by other students. This section is designed to help you select topics. First, we will provide a method for discovering a general topic area. Then we will discuss a method for limiting and refining the topic. Finally, this section contains a list of topics. This list is designed to stimulate your thinking. You do not have to use any of them. You can modify any of them to fit your audience analysis, your research, and your point of view. If, after your study of this material and your own attempts to discover a suitable topic, you still have problems, consult your instructor.

Selecting a Topic

When selecting a topic, the speaker always needs to keep the audience in mind. Do some analysis of the audience first by asking several questions, such as: Who are they? How old are they? Where do they live? What is their level of education? What are their needs? What interests do they have? While these questions do not always provide the starting point for the speaker's location of a topic, they should permeate the speaker's search. A more extensive discussion of audience analysis will follow later.

An important place to look for a topic is in your own experience. In many ways, your experience is unique. All of you are probably expert in some area when you compare yourself to the rest of the class. And with some reflection. you should be able to discover those areas of expertise. Look to your own interests. It might be helpful to share some of these interests with the class.

Suppose you are still coming up empty-handed; try a little brainstorming on your own. Let your mind wander over a variety of topics and write them down as fast as you can without thinking whether these topics are good. It is critical at the beginning to avoid ruling out some topics before writing them down.

Let's see how this might work. As you sit in the library you ask: What might I speak on? So you look around. First, you notice book shelves and the wide variety of colors of books, and immediately you think of the importance of color in selling books. Your mind travels on to the joy of being able to see. You are reminded of a person that you know who has been blind for a long time. Thus, "How to Prevent Blindness" might be a topic. Color reminds one of photography, and a wide variety of topics could be drawn from that subject. You scan briefly the titles of the books and you notice that you are in the section of the library with books on aging. A whole series of topics come to mind about caring for the elderly and nursing home care. A good topic might be a comparison of how the elderly are treated in our country and how they are treated in an Asian country.

Suppose that you are interested in the topic of caring for the elderly. How can you limit that to a subject suitable for communication class? Again, you let your mind run. Such topics as "We Should Not Put Our Aged Parents or Grandparents in Nursing Homes" comes to mind. Or, "What We as Young People Can Do for the Elderly." Immediately, you think of the volunteer programs sponsored by students. This might serve as an excellent topic, and you don't even have to go back over your list to pick from those you wrote down. Save that list for the next round of speeches.

Had you not settled on this subject for a speech, you could have continued the brainstorming process until you had a large list of topics. At least you should have written topics for twenty minutes. You would continue to look around the library and would note the construction of the building itself. What does this suggest? Perhaps you have done some construction in the past. Several topics might work into a speech, such as, "Changes in Architecture in this Century," "Woodworking," "You Should Begin Building a Set of Tools Now," "How to Wire Electrical Circuits."

If you run dry on the above topics, you might pause to think about your

roommates who are listening to the stereo or watching television. This immediately triggers a series of topics about music, topics about types of news, issues of broadcasting, news stories of the past few days, and advertising. You could take each of these and easily write five potential topics. In a short time, then, you can develop a list of potential topics.

Only after you have a sufficient list might you begin to throw some out. And before you dismiss a topic, you should ask whether the audience needs to hear about that topic. If you determine that the topic would be good for the audience, let the topic remain on your list. After you have gone through the entire list, throwing out some topics because they are unnecessary, frivolous, or nearly worn-out, ask which ones you would be competent to handle You do not have to be an expert, because you can become one. For example, let's go back to the list developed above. Perhaps you think young people should be concerned with the elderly. While you are not an expert on the subject, maybe you can handle a part of it.

Limiting the Topic

Notice that you have now set aside the other topics in favor of this broad one of students volunteering to help the elderly. However, the topic needs to be limited. Since you are not an expert on the whole area, you have to limit your subject. You do know something about nursing homes. You know many elderly do not have good eyesight, and you know that reading to them is a good thing for young people to do. Perhaps you have volunteered to read to an aged lady regularly. So you decide to work on a persuasive speech urging students to join a volunteer program for the elderly. You can become an expert on that in a short time. First, you would survey the audience to find out what experience students have had in volunteering for the elderly. Next you would contact those who coordinate volunteer programs. You could attend meetings if they have them, interview members, and perhaps even interview some beneficiaries (besides students) of the program. You will weave into the speech the Biblical injunctions to care for one another. So in a short time you have decided on a worthwhile topic for a speech. With some more thought you will quickly have an outline.

Speech Topic Areas

The list of topic areas that follows should help stimulate your own imagination. Most topics immediately suggest several more related topics. By no

means should you limit your thinking to these topics. Let your mind run freely and many more will come quickly to mind.

Nuclear power plants
Nuclear and other hazardous wastes
Physical education and health
Present problems with insecticides
Competition in sports, schools
Use of lie detector tests
Dance and entertainment
Place of recreation in the Christian life
Food inspection
Pet therapy
Solar, wind, and thermal power
Advertising techniques
U.S. foreign policy toward _____
Not guilty by reason of insanity
Photography
Noise pollution
Teenage entertainment
Weapons treaties and arms limitations
Problems of the elderly
Trends in the church
Consider a career in _____
Illiteracy in Western society
Urban decay
Why health costs are so high
TV programming—problems and values
The war on drugs
Eating Disorders
Ethnic Cleansing
Selection of movies
Computer education
Diet and nutrition
Gun control
Equitable tax systems
Dealing with terrorism
Space program
College housing policies
Clothing as communication
Farming issues
National health care program
Sports and money
Video games
TV and violence
Federal support for education
Genetic engineering
U.S. foreign aid
Illegal aliens
Nursing homes
How color communicates
History of Palestine
Transportation issues
Prison reform
The place of fathers

Many of the topics in this list can be modified to fit a variety of speech purposes and audiences. For example, the topic of "why health costs are so high," could be an informative speech explaining why costs are high, a persuasive speech advocating a solution to the problem, a persuasive speech pleading for a national health insurance program, or a speech to fight current medical malpractice suits. Other speeches or topics are possible from just one topic. You are welcome to use this list of topics as a springboard for your own brainstorming.

However, we plead with you to consider your audience. Remember that your present audience consists of students and a teacher. Many of the students will have been in some of the same classes you have. For example, if all students are required to take a health class, then you should avoid picking topics that are covered in that class. If your audience has already heard about the hazards of drugs and alcohol, then don't speak on that topic. Similarly, remember your speech teacher who has probably heard some topics several times. Some topics become over-used. Most have heard speeches on the need for exercise and good diet, the problems of smoking, the hazards of AIDS, women's rights, and child abuse. Check with the audience about a topic in your consideration. Remember, if you have a new perspective, new information, or a new solution, then you can enliven an old topic.

Review Questions for Chapter 4

1. Identify the different types of delivery for public address. Give the advantages and disadvantages of each type.
2. What are the various problematic attitudes toward public address?
3. What should a speaker do first in his preparation of a speech?
4. What steps should a speaker follow in preparing a speech?
5. What should be the basis for the speaker's selection of a topic?
6. What questions should the speaker ask in selecting a topic?

Chapter Five
Organization

Organization is the framework for construction of a speech. We place this topic early in the text because students must learn early how to organize ideas to facilitate audience acceptance. You have probably heard speeches in which you asked yourself: "Where is the speaker taking us?" Or, you might have complained about a certain speaker who "just rambles." Sometimes speakers seem to go on and on when we think they should have ended. These complaints arise from poor organization, and we want to help you avoid them.

Several conclusions can be drawn from the past 50 years of research on the organization of messages. For example, speakers must consider the audience when deciding what organizational form to use. A highly complex problem-solving approach can be difficult for young audiences. Another conclusion would be that speakers must also analyze the topic. Some speech topics lend themselves more easily to some forms of organization than to others. If you were going to give a tour of your college, you would probably find that a spatial or geographical order would be better than a problem-solving or chronological approach. A third conclusion is that an organized speech helps the audience to listen and to understand. To have your points in a confused order can confuse the audience. Most audiences will be somewhat forgiving, but they do not like confusion.

While audiences can understand a disorganized message, they become impatient quickly. Consider the following sentences:

1. The and the a speech speaker helps well-organized audience.
2. The speech well-organized helps a speaker and the audience.
3. A well-organized speech helps the speaker and the audience.

An audience will not tolerate the first sentence, nor will they understand it. The second sentence is more understandable and acceptable. The last sentence is clear, understandable, and acceptable. The audience expects such organization in a speech, and it helps them listen well.

You have probably already started to ask about the level of this discussion. Are we talking about the organization of a sentence or idea? a paragraph or argument? a whole essay or speech? This chapter will focus on the main parts of the speech (the introduction, body of the speech, and the conclusion). However,

many of the conclusions will also apply to each idea and argument.

While this chapter focuses on the larger portions of the speech, we will discuss them in this order—the body, introduction, and conclusion. You should prepare the introduction and conclusion *after* the body of the speech, because introductions and conclusions must be tailored to the completed body of the speech.

Finally, several comments about speech outlines are necessary. You might be required to supply the instructor of the class with an outline of your speech *before* the speech is given. This helps the instructor in detecting weaknesses and strengths and helps the instructor's memory when completing the evaluation forms. Second, speech outlines should indicate the information, argument, and persuasive appeals that you use. Outlines should show good logical argument, consistent point of view, and a balanced presentation. Include the following on the outline you give to your instructor:

√ the introduction written out completely
√ the organization of the body of the speech including the main points
√ the supporting points and evidence
√ the complete conclusion

Reasons for Good Organization

Speakers should develop good organization in public address for several reasons. First, good organization helps them work toward their central thesis or specific goal. All main points and arguments must contribute directly to the thesis. Second, good organization helps the speakers in preparation and practice of the speech. It helps them remember the main points and their corresponding sub-points. Third, a good speech is a unified, coherent whole like a fine painting in which all parts are complete, balanced, and unified to serve one purpose. Good organization serves as the ruler to measure or test unity and coherence. Fourth, good organization assists the audience's memory. An audience can remember the main points and the purpose of a well organized speech better than those of a poorly organized speech. Fifth, good organization helps the audience attend to the speech. Speakers can keep the audience's attention more easily than when the audience loses its way in a disorganized maze. When you examine the above reasons for having a well organized speech, you should recognize the basic principles for good speech discussed earlier. Specifically, speakers can more fully demonstrate respect for their audience's intellectual capacity by supplying a well organized speech in which the arguments can be tested. Furthermore, speakers reveal honesty with

their audiences when they demonstrate balance of argument, evidence, and perspective. Finally, the organization of the speech shows how speakers meet the needs of their audiences. Such organization will be ethical.

Patterns of Organization

Several different patterns of organization are available. Each pattern should be selected according to the speaker's purpose, and the topic of the speech. These patterns are:

Temporal or Chronological

The temporal or chronological organization is based upon the sequence of events in time. The usual approach is to begin at the earliest point of interest or importance and then move to the next in time, and the next. For example, in a speech on modern foreign policy, you could select as your main points:

Modern U.S. Foreign Policy

I. Nixon and detente
II. Carter and human rights
III. Reagan and national defense
IV. Clinton and drift

The order is arranged according to *time*—from the earliest to the most recent.

While the above order is the most common, you can also reverse the order. For example, if you wish to explain why U.S. allies are confused about American foreign policy, you could reverse the order and begin with the most recent (Clinton) and move to the earliest (Nixon) to show the reasons for increasing change and confusion.

A third type of chronological organization is possible—the flashback. Most people are well acquainted with the flashback techniques of television and film. The screen slowly dissolves to a previous event showing the same character. In a technique used in soap operas, the actor stares while voices from a previous episode are heard over the present action. A technique in public address would be the use of a key statement such as "Go back with me to the day of Nixon's resignation." or "A scene from the past looms before our eyes. Picture. . . ." One characteristic of the flashback is important to note. While the chronological serves

as an organization form for an entire speech, the flashback is *usually* reserved for a single point.

Spatial

The spatial (note the spelling) sequence is based upon the relationships of space. This pattern is particularly helpful for organizing large areas into manageable units. The spatial organization is often used, for example, to describe large factories or campuses:

Tour of College Campus

I. Student Living Space
   - A. East Hall or Dormitory
   - B. North Hall or Dormitory
   - C. West Hall or Dormitory
   - D. East Campus Apartments
   - E. Southview Apartments

II. Student Recreation Areas
   - A. Student Union Building
   - B. P.E. Complex
   - C. Pool

Or . . .

I. Classroom Building
II. Art and Administration Building
III. Science and Technology Building
IV. Library
V. Faculty Offices
VI. Computer Center

Cause/Effect

The cause/effect organization can be used in three ways. First, a speech can be organized as a series of causes *and* effects. Second, it may be a series of causes only. Third, it may be effects only. Typical sample titles or topics could be:

The causes and effects of inflation
The causes of inflation

The effects of inflation

The selection of the organization will depend upon the speaker's purpose and the audience's need. The following examples show two patterns of organization that can be combined into a single form in the last example.

The Causes of Inflation

I. Increased demand for food and goods.
II. More affluent people.
III. Destruction of food supplies.
    A. Wars.
    B. Drought.

The Effects of Inflation

I. Devaluation of the dollar.
II. Loss of source of income.
III. Poverty and starvation.
IV. Depression.

The Causes and Effects of Inflation

I. Causes of inflation.
    A. Increased demand for food and goods.
    B. More affluent people.
    C. Destruction of food supplies.
        1. Wars.
        2. Drought.
II. Effects of inflation.
    A. Devaluation of the dollar.
    B. Loss of source of income.
    C. Poverty and starvation.
    D. Depression.

A note of caution. It is usually easier to detect logical errors in the chronological or spatial organizations than in the cause/effect organization. There is no difficulty detecting the error when the speech moves from 1776 to 1819 to 1789, but the logical relationships in cause and effect need greater thought, research, and testing. For example, can the scarcity of money or low money supply be considered a *cause* of inflation or an *effect* of inflation? While all organizational

approaches need good logical relationships, you are cautioned to test the cause/effect approach carefully to guarantee honesty with the audience.

Pro/Con

The pro/con approach focuses on the arguments surrounding a particular statement or proposition. It presents both arguments for the proposition (pro) and against the proposition (con). Other modifications are also available, such as advantages (pro) and disadvantages (con). The pro/con approaches are based upon arguments and counter-arguments. Speakers must select the variation that fits their purpose and the audience, and they must determine which way to balance the arguments. They can decide to have all pro arguments first and then all con arguments. Or, they can balance them according to issues: issue 1- pro, then con; issue 2 - pro, then con. The following examples might help. In the first example, all arguments are grouped pro, then con, while in the second example arguments are arranged according to issues.

College Housing Policy

I. Pro, or arguments for the policy.
   - A. Supplies equal opportunity to all students.
   - B. Keeps average cost down.
   - C. Supplies regulation of student behavior for freshman.

II. Con, or arguments against the policy.
   - A. No freedom of choice.
   - B. Costs are higher than a group home.
   - C. No freedom for adult students.

College Housing Policy

I. Choice
   - A. Equal opportunity for all. (pro)
   - B. No freedom of choice. (con)

II Costs
   - A. Keeps cost down for all in general. (pro)
   - B. Group home could be cheaper for individuals. (con)

III. Control of student life
   - A. Helps to regulate some behaviors of new students. (pro)
   - B. No freedom—greater restrictions than at home. (con)

While you can select which pro/con approach to use according to your purpose and audience analysis, you must guarantee balanced, honest treatment of the arguments. To ignore or downplay significant arguments against your position fails to maintain honesty and respect for your audience. Good speakers willingly face the strongest arguments against their positions and capably handle those arguments. The result is honest presentation and increased credibility and persuasiveness.

Problem-Solving

The number of possible problem solving patterns of organization is large, but most are based upon a simple approach proposed by John Dewey. Dewey thought that most people naturally solve problems according to the following steps:

1. Awareness of the problem
2. Statement of the problem
3. Location of potential solutions
4. Selection of the best solution
5. Implementation of the solution.

Many writers have refined and expanded this pattern, while others reject its pragmatic basis. Dewey's original organization has several weaknesses. First, it does not demand that problem solvers make clear to the audience the basis for the selection of the solution. No criteria are given. They can base solutions on profit or monetary reasons, personal gain, or even personal grudge. Second, the Dewey pattern does not call for evaluation or for recognition of possible future problems. The implementation of a solution could cause more problems than it solves or could harm others. The evaluation stage is missing. For example, some chemical companies have disposed of chemical wastes, which have caused problems today.

To prevent such difficulties, a different problem-solving organization is recommended. Notice in the following outline that problem solvers must decide on the criteria for the solution before they pick the solution. They must also develop an evaluation system before solutions are implemented.

PROBLEM-SOLVING SEQUENCE

1. The Problem:
   The statement of the problem should include:

A. A specific statement of the problem.

B. A background statement indicating the reason(s) for considering the problem as a problem, evidence that the problem exists.

C. Definition of pertinent terms, concepts, and relationships.

2. Criteria for Solution:

   One or more statements that will be the basis for selecting the final solution(s). These statements must go beyond profit and loss to include statements regarding human impact in the organization, social impact, and human needs. Criteria should be based on Christian norms.

3. Potential Solutions:

   The location or development of potential solutions by:

   A. Discussion with others to seek solutions.

   B. Research to find previously developed solutions.

   C. Brainstorming sessions.

4. Selection of Solution(s):

   A. Locate all those solutions that fit the criteria.

   B. Select those solutions that fit the criteria best.

   C. Select those solutions that can be implemented Christianly.

   D. If several options still exist, then decide which solution(s) is best for the problem.

   E. State the reasons for selecting the solution.

5. Evaluation: After the solution(s) has been put into effect, how will the results be evaluated to determine the need for additional changes?

   A. Determine the basis for evaluation. How will the solution be considered good? according to the previous criteria? some principles? profit? social impact?

   B. Determine who will evaluate.

   C. Determine when to evaluate and how long to evaluate.

6. Implementation: Only after you have determined criteria for how the solution is to be put into effect should implementation begin. This phase should also determine:

   A. Who should implement the solution or plan.

   B. When implementation should begin.

   C. What the potential disadvantages of the solutions might be.

   D. What precautions are necessary to protect people from unrecognized results.

   E. Who will have responsibility for all subsequent action.

The problem-solving organization pattern can be used to guide an audience through arguments and to show how the solution is best The organization can also be modified to fit other purposes. For example, if you want to inform the audience about a problem, you could stop after part 1. To persuade the audience of the value of a solution, you could use parts 2, 3, and 4 for arguments to support the solution. If you have a plan to implement a solution and want to inform the audience about it, you could use parts 1, 2, 4, and 5 as background and use part 6 for the body of the speech. You can modify organizational patterns according to your needs and purposes and the needs of the audience. However, any changes must remain honest.

Topical

The topical form of organization is probably most familiar to students. It consists of breaking a topic or thesis statement into several logically related parts. The parts are naturally related and of equal importance. The topical organization has been used in this chapter.

Patterns of organization

1. Temporal
2. Spatial
3. Cause/effect
4. Pro/con
5. Problem-solving
6. Topical

Because the topics or parts are logically related (they are all patterns of organization) and because they are of equal importance, the order of the list can be changed with no difficulty. The order could have been

1. Pro/con
2. Cause/effect
3. Temporal
4. Topical
5. Problem-solving
6. Spatial

The most important point, however, is that all parts are logically related. They are not a list of ideas as they develop in the mind of the speaker. Speakers cannot always shift the order or set any order they wish. Finally, topics cannot be selected

by whim. Logical relationships and balance are necessary. For example, a student would have difficulty following a topical order for a lecture on organization if it were arranged as follows:

Speech Organization

I. Conclusions
II. Topical
III. Pro-con
IV. Purposes of organization
V. Introductions
VI. Purposes of conclusions

Some concluding comments about organization are necessary. First, the patterns of organization discussed above relate only to the body of the speech. Speakers should not include the introduction and conclusion as part of these patterns of organization.

Second, any speech will probably use a combination of the different types or patterns of organization, but the major organization should be of one pattern only. For example, a speaker selects the temporal organization for the major form but will have topical for one point and cause-effect for another. The following example illustrates.

Confusion in American Foreign Policy	. . . . Temporal
I. Nixon and detente	. . . . Temporal
A. First term	
B. Second term	
1. Watergate	
2. Resignation	
II. Carter and human rights	. . . . Pro-con
A. Weaknesses of policy	
B. Strengths of policy	
III. Reagan and national defense	. . . . Cause-effect
A. Causes for defense build-up	
B. Results of defense build-up	

Third, a speaker must have legitimate reasons for the selection of a particular organizational pattern. Speakers should use the following checklist when choosing

a pattern of organization:

- √ Maintain an honest approach. Important arguments must be included. Recognize and handle all important arguments against your position.
- √ Analyze the audience to ensure that it understands the pattern of organization.
- √ Handle the pattern of organization well. If you have problems with the logical argumentation of the cause-effect type, then you must learn how to use it well or use a different type.
- √ Select the pattern of organization that best fits your purpose or thesis statement. The specific wording of the thesis statement will often indicate what organization should be used.

Introductions

Although the introduction of a speech is a small part of the total speech (at least one-eighth of the total speech length and no more than one-fourth), it performs important functions. It serves the speech, the audience, and the speaker in several ways. To see how the introduction serves, we must look at its purposes and functions.

First, the introduction establishes contact between speaker and audience beyond physical appearance. The audience examines and assesses the speaker before the speech begins. They evaluate physical appearance and behavior. As soon as a speaker begins, his or her voice, words, and actions confirm or modify those first impressions. Those first few moments can help or hinder the communication; therefore, contacts established by the introduction are important.

Second, the introduction gains attention and interest. The presence of people in the auditorium usually indicates that they have at least some interest in the speaker, the subject, or the occasion. However, the speaker wants to gain more interest so the audience will attend to the entire speech. A good introduction gains that attention and interest, but the entire speech must hold it. To gain interest in the introduction does not guarantee interest at the conclusion.

Third, the introduction should also establish the audience's *need* to listen. A speaker can focus the introduction for the audience so the members of the audience recognize why they should listen and what they will gain from the speech.

The introduction also supplies the purpose and organizational plan of the speech. Usually after some technique to gain interest from the audience, the speaker states his or her purpose and main points. While all speakers do not use

this technique, the audience should be aware of the speaker's purpose early in the speech. To neglect the purpose leaves the audience open to manipulation or a suspicion of manipulation, neither of which serves the speaker or audience. As a beginning speaker, you should include your purpose and your main points in each introduction.

Fifth, the introduction can also supply important background or perspective for the speech. While this function of the introduction is common in lectures and sermons, it often becomes lengthy and uninteresting. This function should be coordinated with other functions, such as establishing the audience's need to listen and gaining interest and attention. An introduction must consist of more than background information.

Finally, the introduction also has the function of helping speakers alleviate their own anxiety. A lively, interesting, and moderately dramatic introduction can help them interact with the audience enough to take away thoughts of their own performance.

All introductions should have several functions—not just one. To select and use only one function often causes problems. For example, an introduction designed only to gain interest and attention usually relies on emotion and fails to indicate the speaker's purpose. This is hardly ethical. The speaker must show respect for the audience. A good introduction helps the speaker and the audience. It alleviates anxiety, supplies the speaker's purpose, and gains audience attention.

Speakers have many *techniques to use* in the introduction. They are limited only by their own creativity and willingness to prepare. A good introduction demands time for its construction and wording.

Below are several techniques you should consider.

√ Humor

Good humor in the form of a story or a joke can be an effective technique. In fact, humor throughout the speech is effective, but the humor must fit the speech by illustrating or introducing a point.

√ Anecdotes

Many types of anecdotes are possible for the speaker: true or fictitious, humorous or serious, personal experience or the experience of a member of the audience. Anecdotes can introduce the speech, set the background for the thesis statement, and gain interest. As with humor, anecdotes can

can also be used throughout the speech.

√ Problems, dilemmas, puzzles

Posing a problem, dilemma, or an intriguing puzzle to the audience is also a viable technique, but you must be cautious. The problem, dilemma, or puzzle should not be a gimmick only to gain attention from the audience.

√ Quotations

The brief or moderately long quotation can be effective in the introduction and should be given more consideration by speakers. However, good quotations for introductions can be difficult to locate. Be aware of the possibilities for locating quotations while researching the topic. Quotations are often used in the body of a speech, because they usually are used as evidence for argument rather than as attention mechanisms.

√ Historic events

Recent events such as those covered in the news serve introductions well, but the audience should be familiar with the incident. You should not need to supply lengthy information about the event so the audience will remember. Such activity detracts from the technique and moves the audience too far from the speech. The selection of the event is important. Historic events can include international incidents, accidents, rescues, factory construction, earthquakes. Note that you must be knowledgeable in current events and history and must be imaginative.

While many techniques are possible, you should also be aware of those *techniques that should be avoided.* Avoid the following:

√ Apologetic opening

"I really don't know why I have been asked to speak. I'm not an expert." or "I really have not had the time to check all the sources because of a recent auto accident." Such techniques usually fail to gain sympathy and often result in the opposite reaction. You have the responsibility to be prepared. Poor preparation is dishonest with the audience. To plead not being a good speaker is also dishonest. If you aren't, you have the responsibility to become one.

√ Gimmick

One speaker noted that he was aware of being "long winded." To prevent too long a speech, he had brought along some help. At that point he placed an alarm clock on the podium. However, if that clock failed, he had another—his wrist alarm. After this introduction, the audience's attention was focused on the alarms and not on the speech. The speaker had distracted the audience. Such techniques fail to show respect for the audience or the speaker.

√ Rhetorical questions

The rhetorical question is a question posed to the audience with the answer generally understood by the audience. The rhetorical question is not recommended for several reasons. First, the rhetorical question is over-worked. Public address students use it so much that it no longer gains interest or attention. Frequently, the rhetorical question indicates the direction of the speech. If the audience already knows the answers to the questions, then they have no reason to continue listening. Third, some speakers have had the unanticipated situation of someone in the audience answering the question aloud and in a contrary way. The entire speaking situation is then disrupted. Finally, the rhetorical question is often used to beg the question—a fallacy in argument. Begging the question is a fallacy of assuming that the audience knows your answer and accepts your answer. The speaker then continues with another part of the argument that assumes the first. Note the following abbreviated illustration: "Do you remember the banking industry's conspiracy to dominate our government? Do you realize that many of those same conspirators control the federal budgeting process today? I have a plan to remove all banking officials from our government." The speaker has a plan to remove conspirators from the federal government. The speaker's responsibility, however, is to first prove the existence of conspiracies in the federal government. By a series of rhetorical questions the speaker guided the audience into faulty conclusions.

√ Questionable humor

Humor of questionable moral value and of bad taste must be avoided, but another form of humor is also questionable—humor for its own sake. This humor usually takes the form of a series of jokes in the introduction

followed by a pause or a transitional statement such as, "more seriously though." In this case the speaker uses humor to "warm up" the audience. This humor has no relationship to the speech. However, good humor is an integral part of the speech when it illustrates a point or eases a transition.

√ Offending the audience

The speaker should not offend the audience with cutting remarks or derogatory statements about the audience or others. Some comedians try to use cutting remarks as humor. While it may result in laughter from some people, such activities by comedians and speakers should be considered non-Christian.

√ Abrupt openings.

"Thank you for coming. Tonight I'm going to speak about the causes of inflation. The three main causes are. . . ." The abrupt opening severely limits or eliminates the introduction of the speech. The speaker has not gained attention and interest. More importantly, the purpose is not clear. Insufficient attention was given to contact with the audience.

√ Long introductions

Avoid long introductions that confuse the audience about where the introduction ends and what the purpose of the speech is. The long introduction leaves too little time for the important parts of the speech. An introduction should be no longer than one-fourth of the total speech. One-eighth is a recommended length.

The introduction is a crucial part of the public address. A lively, interesting introduction that supplies background, purpose, and the main points requires work. To construct a good introduction, prepare it after the body of the speech has been completed. Then the total outline is available, and you can have the needed information from your research.

Conclusions

This discussion will be organized much like the discussion of introductions: the functions of conclusions, the techniques available for conclusions, and the

techniques to avoid.

In many ways, conclusions are much like introductions, even though they appear at opposite ends of a speech. In fact, many of the ideas in the introduction are modified and restated to fit the end of the speech rather than the beginning.

Conclusions have many functions. First, speakers can use the conclusion to carry on that spark of attention and interest started in the introduction and maintained throughout the speech. The audience's attention tends to increase when it senses that the speech is ending. Speakers should maximize that attention.

Second, speakers can use a conclusion to clarify goals or purposes for the last time. If they sense any potential misunderstandings, the conclusion is the last chance to state the purpose clearly and briefly.

Third, the conclusion can also be designed to help the audience's memory. The conclusion is the place to use short, pithy statements, acronyms, or other techniques to help the audience remember the important points of the speech.

Fourth, in a persuasive speech, the conclusion is the place for the final call to action.

Fifth, the conclusion can also serve as a summary statement for the speech or as a repetition of the main points in the speech.

Most of the techniques available for introductions can also be used in conclusions with modifications to fit the end of the speech. Jokes, anecdotes, problems, dilemmas, quotations, and historic events can all work well.

However, one technique that fits only conclusions should be mentioned—the reference to the introduction. The speaker designs the conclusion so the audience moves back to or remembers the introduction. This technique tells the audience that the speech is near its end and brings unity to the entire speech. This technique can also be modified to refer to the entire occasion and the reason for the meeting. While this technique is good, it should not be over-used.

You should be *cautioned* about several techniques sometimes used in conclusions. Avoid these:

√ Overly dramatic statements

One often observes this technique in religious rallies and films. It relies upon emotionalism. It is neither honest nor respectful of the audience.

√ Abrupt conclusion

This technique fails to respect the audience because it breaks off the communication so rapidly. The speaker reaches the end of the body of the

speech and ends the speech with a "thank you," a single sentence, or nothing.

√ Flattering ending

"Thank you so much. You have been a very patient and attentive audience, and I appreciate it. Your children also have been so quiet and attentive. You can be proud of them, of this beautiful community. . . ." A sincere and honest statement of appreciation is legitimate, but flattery has nothing to do with the speech and suggests manipulation.

√ Long conclusion

This results from including too many examples, too many last-minute appeals, or too much reiteration of the body of the speech. Audiences do not like speeches that hardly end. Make the conclusion of a speech shorter than the introduction.

Review Questions for Chapter 5

1. What are the purposes for organization in a speech?
2. What are the different types or patterns for organization?
3. What are the bases for the speaker's selection of an pattern of organization for a speech?
4. What are the purposes of introductions? of conclusions?
5. What techniques can be used for introductions? for conclusions?
6. What techniques should a speaker avoid for an introduction? for a conclusion? Why?
7. For the beginning speaker, why should the introduction contain a technique (such as a quotation) to gain interest, a clear statement of purpose, and the main points of the speech?
8. Your textbook discusses several techniques that should be avoided in introductions and says why each should be avoided. One could also say that they are all unethical. Why? Explain—using specific examples.

Exercises

1. The following exercise is designed to help you recognize the relationship of the topic and organization. Select your answer and be prepared to discuss it in class. What pattern of organization best fits these topics or titles?

   _____a. The Rise and Fall of the Third Reich

   _____b. The results of ethnic cleansing in the Balkans

   _____c. The mining of iron ore

   _____d. The life of Franklin D. Roosevelt

   _____e. How should the U.S. deal with China?

   _____f. The ways of organizing a speech

   _____g. What brought on the collapse of the Soviet Union?

   _____h. Western College campus

   _____i. The advantages of Social Security

   _____j. The answer to medical care costs

2. Be able to supply examples of faulty introductions and conclusions you have observed.

3. Go back to the basic principles discussed in Chapter 2. Using those ethical principles, explain why the following cases are wrong.

   a. A speaker refers to the previous speaker in a humorous, but questionable comment.

   b. A speaker fails to tell the audience his purpose throughout the speech.

   c. The entire speech is based on attacking his opponent in the congressional election race.

   d. The speaker dramatizes a recent accident, which took the lives of ten citizens in that small town.

4. Explain why the following introductions are faulty. These are abbreviated introductions. They are not complete, but the important portions are here.

   a. This audience reminds me of my mother-in-law: a lot of noise and no work.

b. Today, I want to talk about the corruption in professional sports.

c. Good evening. I heard a funny joke on the way over tonight. I'd like to tell you that story before I begin my speech.

d. I'm sorry, but I had an accident en route to this meeting, and I'm still a little shaky. Please bear with me.

5. Develop a problem-solving outline for a speech to persuade your audience to vote for a balanced budget in Washington.

Chapter Six
Informative Speaking

Informative speaking is probably the most familiar type of public speaking. One finds it everywhere. Think how often you are asked to explain something, or consider how often you wish to have something explained to you. Much of formal education involves informative speaking. Although we make a distinction between informative speeches and persuasive speeches for speech assignments, the distinction is more pedagogical than theoretical. One of the characteristics of communication, described earlier, is that all communication is persuasive. This characteristic is true of informative speaking as well. It is often difficult to pinpoint the difference between the two types of speeches.

The purpose of informative speaking is primarily to facilitate understanding. Persuasive speeches aim to influence or change attitudes and/or actions. However, notice the overlap in a topic such as abortion. If you simply describe the abortion process, the description alone might carry persuasive impact as the audience is horrified at the suffering and destruction of a human life. Another example would be the description of the national debt in the United States. The facts—without persuasive appeals—might persuade the audience of the need for a balanced budget. Much the same could be said about speeches to inform on such topics as "Ethnic Cleansing in Bosnia," "The Palestinian Need for a Homeland," and "Capital Punishment." Overlap exists, but in this chapter we will focus on the informative speech with its primary purpose of informing.

Supporting Material - Inform and Persuade

The nature of supporting materials is usually somewhat different in informative speeches than in persuasive speeches. Sometimes the distinction is made between expository materials that form the substance of speeches to inform and the evidence of arguments combined with persuasive appeals that make up speeches to persuade. In this chapter expository materials will be discussed. Arguments and persuasive appeals will be discussed in other chapters of this text.

Sometimes informative speeches are uninteresting because speakers think the only responsibility they have is to explain something. They have the idea that all they must do is talk about their topic. Often they give insufficient thought to the types of supporting materials used. The result is a lifeless speech and a fatigued

audience. Some attention to materials, then, is necessary.

Types of Supporting Materials for Informative Speeches

- *Examples*

  This is the most important supporting material. Even though it is simple and common, this type of support is sometimes misused. Keep in mind several guidelines or rules for the use of examples:

  √ The example should contribute directly to your point. A well-placed, brief example often clinches a point. A speech on government waste has little impact until the speaker identifies, for example, how much was paid for a new desk in the Pentagon, hammer for the U.S. Army, or an ashtray for a U.S. Air Force jet.

  √ The example should be adapted to the educational and interest levels of the audience. Not everyone is interested in or able to handle a lengthy description of a computer program. Even though you could be knowledgeable in this area, many in your class might know little about computer programming.

  √ The example should be consistent with the tone of the speech. A speech on violence in television programs today should not depict course language used in a current movie. The rule is that the example should *add* to the speech, *not take away from it.* Examples added only for the sake of getting attention are unacceptable.

- *Definitions*

  These are also common and frequently a necessary part of a speech to inform. Mistakes are often made in understanding, because people are easily confused about meanings. Speakers familiar with their subjects sometimes forget that audiences often do not have that same level of understanding. If your definition is different from the way the word is usually defined, be sure to explain it. As illustration, the term *religion* is used differently by Christians and secular humanists. Many Christians use the term to refer to a worldview, while secular humanists use it to refer only to a personal, private part of life when one engages in worship or religious ceremonies. Here are a few rules for the use of definitions.

√ Define the unknown in terms of the known. For example, it would not be wise for us to try to define ethical theory as metaethics since you are probably not familiar with metaethics. Instead, we should use your language to define it.

√ Define the word by placing it in context. For example, the term *relationship* is used in many ways. Relationships in the family are different from courtship relationships. If we wish to have you think about a family relationship, such as between father and child, we need to explain that it refers to shared values—"a good relationship between father and child involves many shared values and interests."

√ It may be wise to check with your audience (in advance if possible) to determine which terms need defining.

• *Narration*

This involves describing a series of events usually in chronological order. Some of you may have had to write a narrative paper in freshman English, so you know how to handle this type of supporting material in writing. Here the speaker needs to be careful to fill in enough events to enable the audience to grasp the outline of the whole picture while avoiding too many details that bore the audience. Remember—what is significant to the speaker might not be so for the audience.

• *Comparisons*

These supporting materials show similarities. Comparisons are helpful for explaining how large, long, or high something is by using the comparative size of an item the audience knows. Essentially the speaker uses what is clear to the audience to help explain something that formerly was not clear. For example, since most audiences know the size of a football field, the speaker can use this knowledge to explain how large a jumbo jet is by comparing it to a football field.

• *Contrasts*

These are the opposite of comparisons and show the differences. Like comparisons, contrasts are often useful for making a point more precise. Again, develop contrasts with items the audience already knows

• *Statistics*

A simple definition for statistics is "facts in numbers." While statistics can be useful, and are sometimes necessary, they can also present problems. The use of statistics will be treated in the material on tests of evidence later. Some suggestions are offered here:

√ Compare or contrast your statistic with something else to show how many, how few, how large, or how small the idea or object is. For example, to say "one-third of the women at American College are married" can be stated more clearly as "one-third of all women or 276 women at American College are married." Large numbers or difficult statistics can be stated more concretely to help audience understanding. To compare one million dollars to one billion dollars you could say: "If a six-inch stack of one thousand dollar bills equals a million dollars, then the stack for one billion dollars would be 500 feet high."

√ Simplify statistics whenever possible: round off numbers, use fewer numbers. Only the sharpest listener would be able to handle several statistics in a speech. Rather than stating "U.S. exports amounted to $39,167,512,292.67 last year compared to Canadian exports of $23,903,175,729.035," you should round off the numbers to say "Last year U.S. exports amounted to 39 billion dollars compared to Canadian exports of 24 billion dollars."

• *Description*

This is also quite common and is usually combined with those already discussed above. Description, however, needs attention because of its tendency to become dull, pedestrian, and slow. In attempts to sketch verbally the idea or object for the audience, speakers often use words that fail to provide clear, sharp images. Therefore a few important suggestions follow.

√ Try to use vivid word images. More on style and vividness in language usage will follow in a later chapter. Perhaps you might want to look at the chapter on style now for some suggestions.

√ Try to stimulate the listeners' senses of taste, touch, smell, sight, and

sound. Appeals to the senses quickly liven up description and help your audience understand the subject. Just because something you are trying to describe is very clear in your mind does not mean it is as clear in the audience's mind.

√ Be concrete rather than abstract. Concrete images are rarely out of place. If you talk in vague terms about your idea, the meaning in the mind of the audience will likely be vague, too.

• *Opinions and Testimony*

These fit more appropriately in persuasive speeches, but they can be used in informative speeches also. What another person thinks about a problem may be helpful in your explanation. Quotations from other sources, of course, fit into this category as opinions of others. They must always be stated accurately with the source clearly and completely identified. If possible, use people, organizations, sources, and opinions that the audience would readily accept as authoritative. If this is not possible, you will need extra time to build the credibility of the people you are quoting.

• *Details*

This category of supporting materials for speeches to inform overlaps with some earlier categories. The majority of your audiences are probably used to the six or ten o'clock news rather than in-depth treatment of events by books or news magazines. Therefore, details are lost on the audience and may confuse them. This does not mean that you should not give a detailed speech, but it should alert you to the need to work to maintain the attention of the audience. In an age of television, people want the information quickly and briefly.

• *Audio-visual aids*

These consist of a wide range of aids for the speaker. As technology continues to grow, people's expectations for it expand. Because of the special importance of these materials, we are devoting a separate chapter to their selection and use.

The above discussion of materials is incomplete, but it provides the basic information necessary to support an informative speech.

Tests for Presentation of Supporting Materials

Speakers should know and automatically apply a few short tests to the materials selected for presentation. Use the following tests for all speeches:

√ Is the supporting material correct?

√ Is the supporting material relevant?

√ Is the supporting material specific?

√ Is the supporting material clear?

√ Is the supporting material interesting?

These tests go a long way toward helping a person give a good speech to inform. They also assist the audience in its understanding and evaluation of the speech.

Techniques for Using Supporting Materials

Since the purpose of the informative speech is to help the audience understand and remember, it might be worthwhile to scan briefly techniques that assist understanding. These techniques are

» Choose topics of interest to your audience (as well as yourself). Because of the wide variety of topics that you might choose, give this technique a little thought. Most often you can find topics in which your audience is already interested, but sometimes you need to show the audience why it should be interested in your material.

» Give the listeners new and valuable information. Old information bores an audience quickly in many instances. Even though they may have heard several speeches on a particular topic, most of the time you can add new information and interpret it in such a way that the audience will be interested in it. If listeners are interested, they will be more likely to understand it and remember it.

» Get the audience to think with you. This means that you will have to put yourself in the place of the audience many times. Do not only think of

of yourself and what you want to say. Instead, think about how well the audience is understanding what you have to present.

» Use precise words. This technique is important enough that repeating it here might more firmly fix it in your mind.

» Organize carefully (according to the chapter on organization). Try these:

√ Preview the speech early. Let the audience know where you are going and how you plan to get there. Do not hide your organizational pattern.

√ Identify each point clearly.

√ Remember that transitions help the audience know where you are.

√ Repeat key points. Many fine speakers use this technique abundantly.

√ Summarize.

Review Questions for Chapter 6

1. Why must speakers be concerned about supporting materials in an informative speech?
2. What are the various types of supporting materials speakers can use? Describe each type and supply the rules that guide their use for each .
3. Why should the speaker test supporting materials?
4. What are the tests for supporting materials?
5. What should the speaker do to help the audience understand and remember?
6. Why should a speech to inform not be about a mundane, unimportant topic?

Chapter Seven
Audio-Visual Aids

Audio-visual aids have long been used in public speaking. However, today these materials are growing in importance. Television, video, and other visual aids play an increasing part in education, in the home, and in business. Young people, particularly, are becoming more and more sophisticated in visual technology.

Possibilities for audio-visual aids in public address include audio tapes, video tapes, clips of movies, slides, overhead transparencies, large photographs, charts, drawings, and objects. Equipment ranges from the slide, opaque, and overhead projectors to video players, audio systems, and computer-generated projections. Although not as popular as other equipment, flip charts remain in wide use. White boards are replacing blackboards in classrooms—with increasing use of color.

Complex audio-visual materials such as video tapes and movies, are often overdone. Too much time has to be spent giving the entire context for audience understanding so that it detracts from the main points of the speech. For example, the authors attended a presentation at the national convention of the Speech Communication Association in which video taped segments of various television programs were used to illustrate the speaker's point. Approximately ten minutes were used for speaking while the audio-visual aids consumed thirty minutes. The direction of the speech and the main purpose of the speaker were lost because of the aids. Visual aids became the central presentation rather than aiding the speaker. A colleague recently complained that while all of the presentations at a convention were interesting, all speakers stood off to one side in the dark while the majority of the time was spent looking at slides and video clips. While the slides and clips were "classy," the speakers did not make eye contact with the audience.

Drawings, charts, and pictures can be found or constructed quickly. Our purpose is to get you started in the use of visual aids by focusing on drawings, charts, transparencies, and pictures. When you become a more accomplished or experienced speaker with the technical competence to handle equipment well, then consider the wider range of audio-visual aids available to you.

Visual aids are concrete materials that aid the speaker and audience. They have two purposes: to convey meaning simply, accurately, and quickly and to improve understanding by making the difficult more simple. Visual aids can also add appeal to a public address. However, a poor visual aid can detract from the speech by causing misunderstanding.

Good visual aids have four essential characteristics: visible to all members of the audience, used at the correct time, operable when needed (the machines will work), and constructed for accurate and rapid understanding.

The source of visual aids is limited only by the speaker's research and creativity. Often the basic information for a visual aid or the visual aid itself can be found during the research of the subject.

The complexity and type of visual aid to use (transparencies, slides, photographs, charts, or the actual objects) are determined according to the needs and conditions of the speech. For example, a large audience demands large visual materials so all members of the audience can see without difficulty. Other conditions to consider are the age of the audience and the educational background of the audience. Below are some guidelines for the construction and use of your visual aids. These guidelines will help you to avoid most of the problems.

√ Select or design the visual aid to improve the audience's understanding of your speech or point. Look for those points which could be difficult to understand without some visual assistance. Don't make a visual of those points which are easily grasped by the audience; for example, some students make a transparency of their main points. Such a visual is superfluous or unnecessary.

√ Be sure that the visual is complete, clear, and accurate. Include all the numbers, scales, or other information necessary for quick, easy understanding. The title should give a precise statement of the visual. The source of the information must be supplied with the visual as you would use a footnote in writing. Construct the visual aid so it guarantees honesty.

√ Make the visual aid attractive and interesting. A good visual aid should help to maintain the audience's attention and understanding. Use different colors, shading or checkering to make the chart attractive as well as understandable. Similarly, make sure the print is large enough to be readable by all members of the audience. Avoid distractions such as too small a visual aid, passing the item around the audience, faulty equipment, or an aid that collapses during use. The visual aid is to help the spoken word and not detract from it.

√ Care enough about the topic and your audience to do a good job when constructing and using the aid in the speech. That means practicing the speech, including the visual aid. That practice enables you to use it at the correct time and in an appropriate manner. If you use equipment, such as an overhead projector or slide projector, be sure you practice with the equipment so you know it works. Set up the equipment *before* the speech. Avoid standing in front of the visual aid. Stand to the side so you can point out the important aspects while still facing the audience. Avoid talking to the visual aid. Using a pointer may be better than a nervously shaking finger.

When you are using visual aids, consider all possible aids before selecting the type needed: charts, maps, graphs, designs, photographs, video clips, outlines, paintings, objects, models, and transparencies. Select what is needed by the topic, the audience, and you the speaker. Decide what will be best for the audience size, available equipment, distance from the audience, or other points you find during the analysis of the speaking situation. Research of the topic can help you in discovering the need for visual aids and the information for them. Unfortunately, visual aids are easily forgotten and often done poorly. Push yourself to construct them well and to use them for everyone's advantage. Visual aids serve as supporting material in the informative speech. They can also supply evidence for arguments and strong appeals in persuasion. You can and should use visual aids in nearly all speeches.

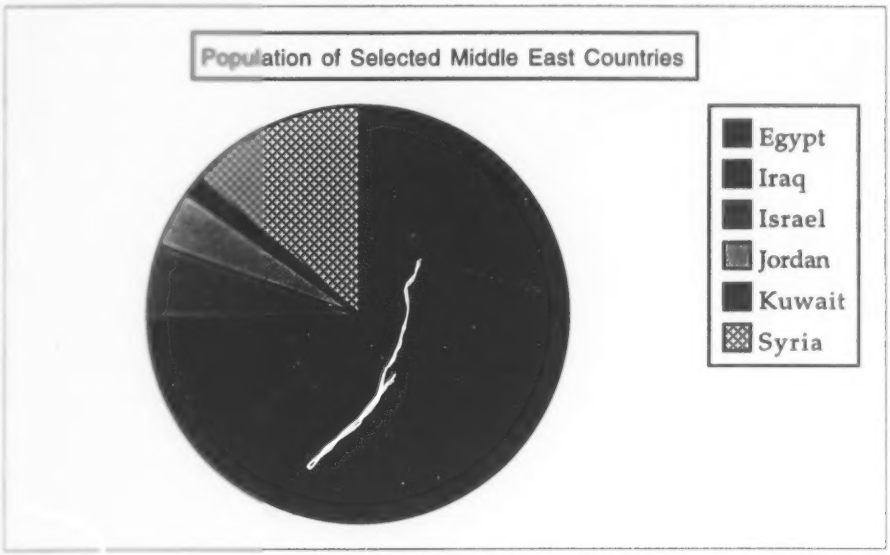
Major advances in computer graphics in recent years has increased the possibilities significantly for speakers. Painting and drawing programs are readily available for your use. High quality printing and copying machines make the speaker's work easier and better. Some companies produce visual aids for teachers, public relations officers, and speakers.

A good place to begin is with a simple computer painting or drawing program. Many computer programs will quickly turn a set of numbers into a chart. For example, we put the following numbers into a spreadsheet:

Population of Selected Middle East Countries

Egypt	57285000
Iraq	20562000
Syria	14262000
Israel	5672000
Jordan	4595000
Kuwait	1693000

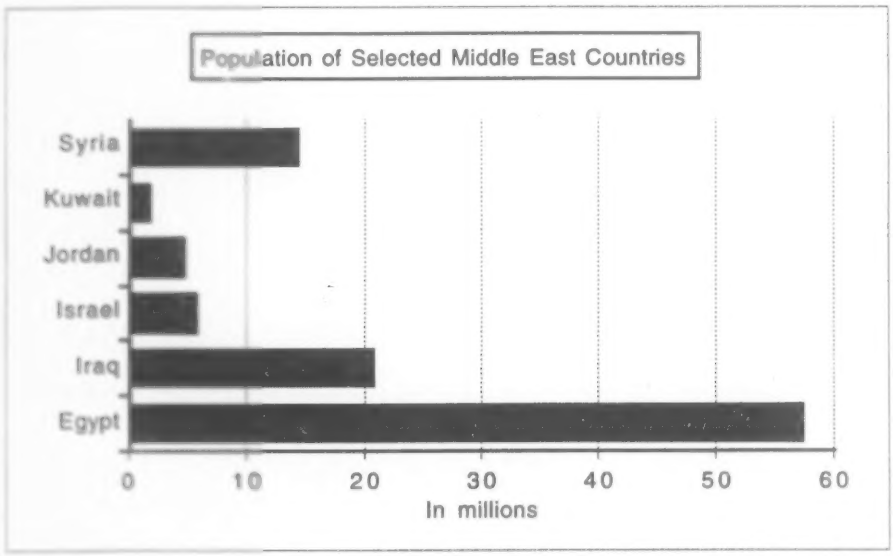
We then asked the computer to make a chart of these numbers. We selected a pie chart first. Figure 7:1 is the result.



Source: Electronic Arts 3D Atlas, 1994

Figure 7:1

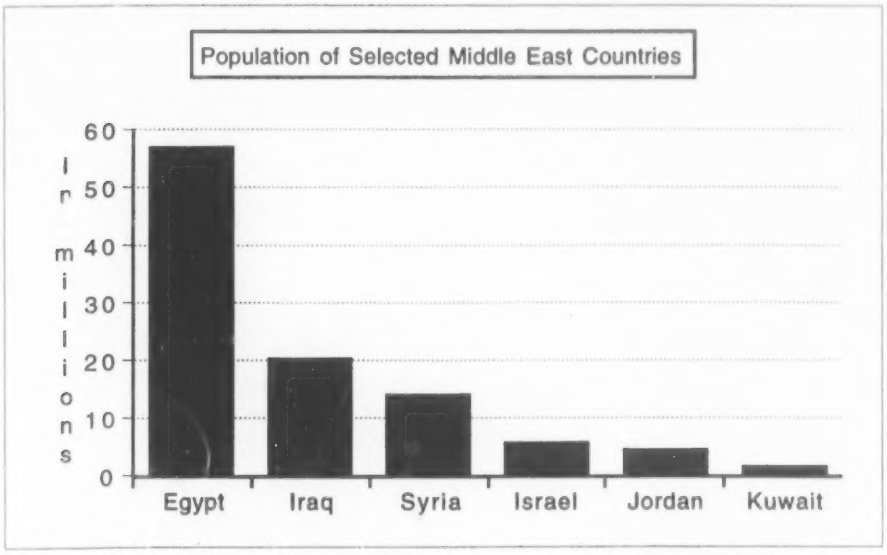
The same information from the pie chart can just as easily be turned into a bar chart as Figure 7:2 shows.



Source: Electronic Arts 3D Atlas, 1994

Figure 7:2

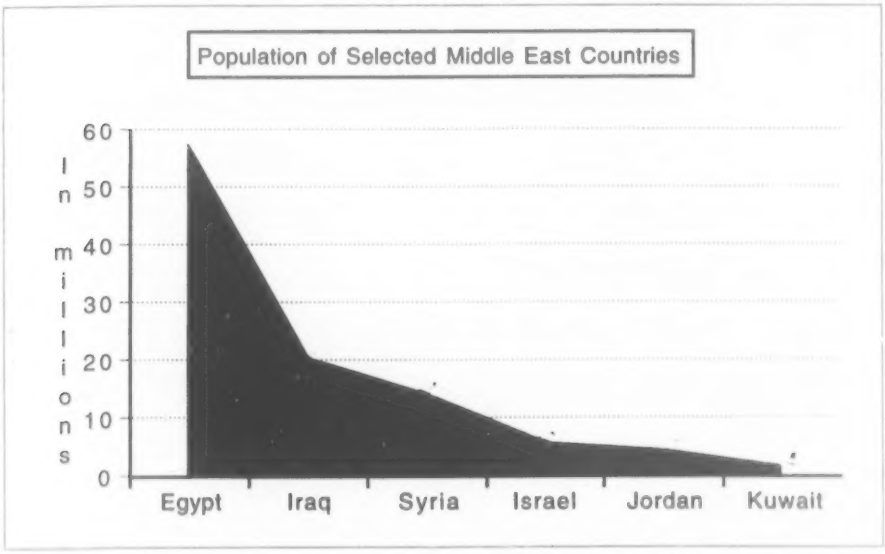
If you judge that a vertical bar would be easier to read, this is illustrated in Figure 7:3.



Source: Electronic Arts 3D Atlas, 1994

Figure 7:3

One can also turn the same material into an area graph as Figure 7:4 demonstrates.



Source: Electronic Arts 3D Atlas, 1994

Figure 7:4

The order depends on the way one types the material into the spreadsheet. For example, instead of ordering the countries according to size of population, one could also use alphabetical order. One can also order from largest to smallest or smallest to largest.

The same material can be copied and placed into a graphics program that allows one to modify the chart quite easily.

Other computer programs are very good for making transparencies. For example, if one only wanted to put the data in front of the audience without a chart, some computer programs are helpful in making neat transparencies quickly as Figure 7.5 illustrates.

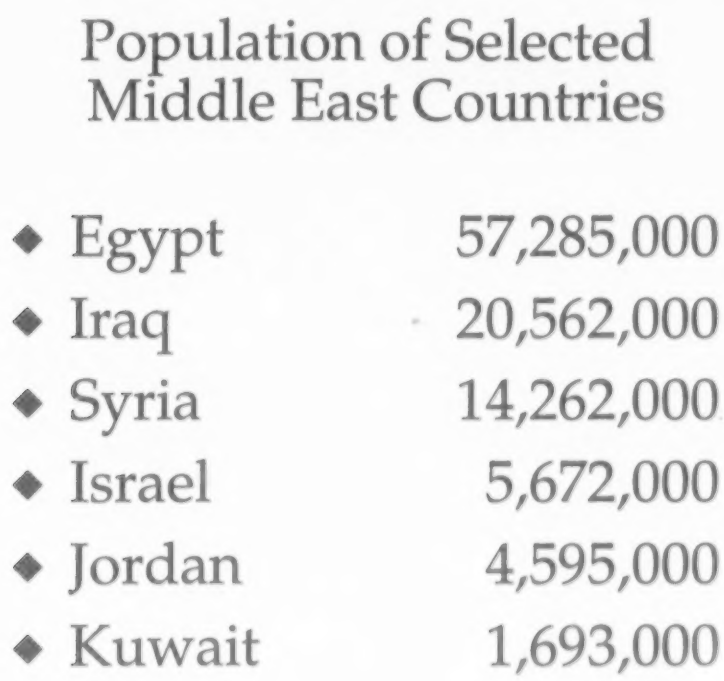


Figure 7.5

Students frequently make mistakes in size of print for transparencies. A good rule of thumb is that the printed letters should be at least one-half inch in height for transparencies. Incidentally, the size of the print in Figure 7.5 is the minimum. Print should be no smaller than this for easy reading. Larger print is better.

Print on posters will have to be much larger. Avoid fancy type styles that are not easy to read. Instead, choose block print that shows up well from a distance. Most programs, as well as many copying machines, will enlarge or reduce the

visual aid according to what the speaker needs for the situation.

These few examples simply illustrate some possibilities. Go far beyond these. Creativity is a key element in designing visual aids.

A brief list of Dos and Don'ts may be helpful.

Do

√ Identify the source of your material
√ Use color
√ Test all your equipment in advance—including markers
√ Use items large enough for all to see
√ Remove the visual aid or shut off the machine when you are finished with it
√ Make your print large enough

Don't

√ Clutter the visual aid
√ Talk to the visual aid
√ Pass items through the audience
√ Stand in front of the visual aid
√ Let the visual aid replace the speech

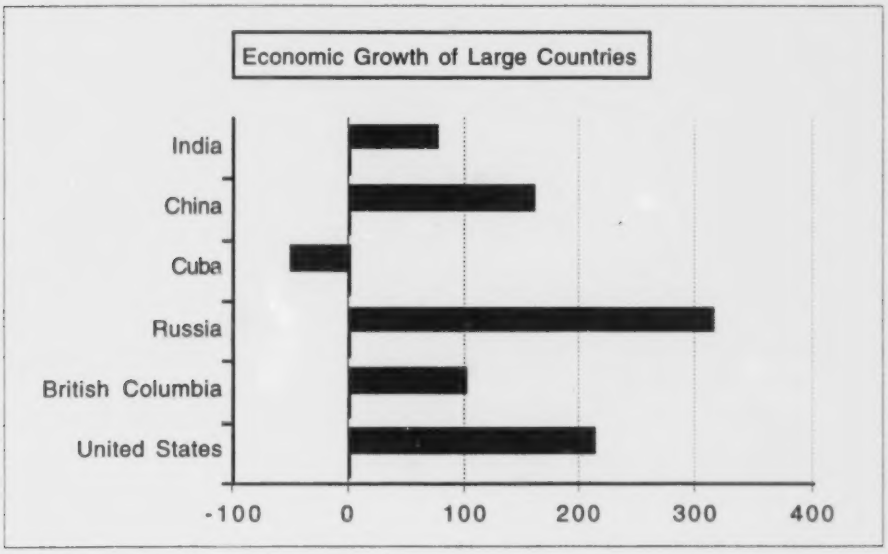
Review Questions for Chapter 7

1. What are the purposes of visual aids?
2. What are the four characteristics of a good visual aid?
3. Describe some common problems with the use of visual aids.
4. What can the speaker do to prevent problems with visual aids?

Exercises for Visual Aids

Study the following visual aids. What problems can you find in each one? Be prepared to discuss these in class.

A. Identify at least five major errors in the following visual aid:



Errors:

1.

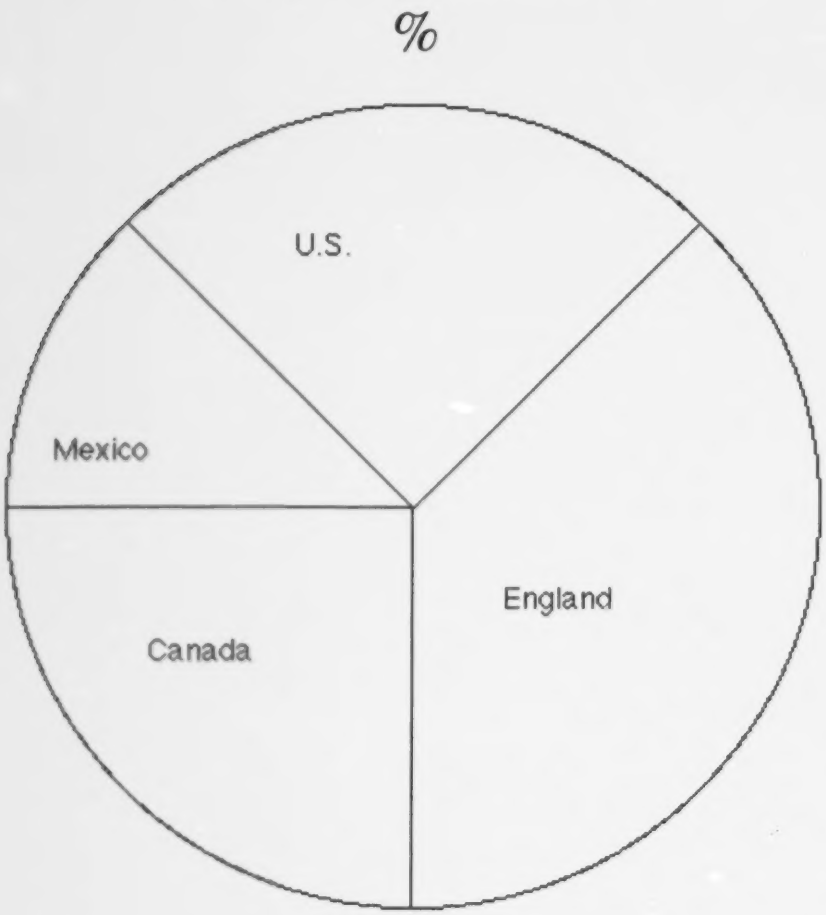
2.

3.

4.

5.

B. Identify at least five major errors in the following visual aid:



United States	55.133%	171659203.09
England	25.0%	78005109.9
Mexico	15.06%	46898799.7
Canada	4.75%	14790000

Errors:

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

Chapter 8
Persuasion

While many people use persuasion in their work (salesmen, preachers, teachers, and politicians), others tend to distrust persuasion. Possibly their distrust results from the constant flow of persuasion in television and radio programming and advertising. Maybe they might have purchased products they wish they had not. However, even those that distrust persuasion use it frequently. They build a reputation of honesty and fairness (which is good) and depend upon that reputation or credibility. In fact, high credibility can persuade without intending to persuade. Most people try to convince others that their position or belief is correct, that their analysis of the coming test is best, that their assessment of the professor is correct. Even the job interview involves persuasion.

Check yourself. How much time do you spend trying to persuade others? To persuade yourself?

One characteristic of communication is *persuasive.* All communication has persuasiveness. It influences others.

Before we describe the process of persuasion, we need to sketch the way people in the past have thought of it. Much of that history influences the study of persuasion today.

- **Plato** defined rhetoric (an old word for persuasion) as "the art of winning the soul by discourse." One could only do that, in his view, by understanding truth. And truth was discovered by pondering ideas. Consequently, it was only the philosophers that could discover truth. He seemed to argue that if people knew the truth, they would follow it.

- **Aristotle**, Plato's student, did a more complete study of persuasion. He found three means of persuasion which you should note: 1) the ethos of the speaker which is similar to credibility, 2) pathos, or bringing the people into a state of emotion by speech, and 3) logos, or reasoning which demonstrates the truth.

- **Cicero**, a Roman, is credited with the development of the five canons of rhetoric: invention, arrangement, style, delivery, and memoria.

- **Augustine** dealt largely with preaching. Persuasion, he said, was necessary to move the person to action. The speaker must constantly be in

touch with the audience—watching them so that he would know how extensively to develop his speech. The persuader's duty was to instruct first, then delight the audience, and finally move the people to action.

- In the **Middle Ages**, we find little history of persuasion; however, Fenelon did advocate that delivery, especially gestures, had to be natural. In Europe, the Roman church was the authority and as the pronouncer of truth. What it said was to be accepted without question. Persuasion was by the authority of the instituted church.

- By the opening of the **modern period** (1500) there was a tendency to emphasize one of the five canons Cicero identified. For example, style or delivery were emphasized while argument or organization were minimized as important in speech. Aristotle was rediscovered and persuaders again turned their attention to ethos, pathos, & logos.

- In the **eighteenth century**, there were several important trends. One of these was called the Elocutionary movement, and it emphasized delivery at the expense of other parts of speech. In this movement students had to memorize many prescribed gestures and to practice them for hours. Another trend stressed figurative language, while another trend moved toward the study of psychology.

- In the **nineteenth century**, Richard Whately explained that persuasion should consist primarily of argumentation. He wanted to defend the Christian faith against skeptics. He came up with the doctrine of presumption which suggested that those presenting new ideas had the responsibility to prove their ideas. He thought the skeptics had a greater burden to prove their points than the church did in maintaining its traditional position of faith.

- Early in the **twentieth century**, separate speech departments developed in American universities in the Middle West, and these departments were very interested in research and teaching of persuasion. Persuasion courses were among the oldest in communication (much older than interpersonal, organizational, mass, and even small group communication). Speech theorists such as Winans, Woolbert, Brigance, and others were very interested in contributions from psychological studies in the twenties. The reason is that speech people knew motivation was integral to persuasion. They wanted to adapt the findings from new studies in psychology into

their knowledge about persuasion. Furthermore, psychologists also studied attention, and attention was crucial to persuasion.

- Interest in attitude change developed significantly in the **twenties** and **thirties** in America. This study resulted from events at the time. The Institute for Propaganda Analysis began in 1937 as an attempt to study the persuasion that Hitler was using and how people were responding to that persuasion. How could one individual persuade a nation to accept his aggressions and his extermination of millions? During the war, scholars noticed that both sides used particular means to convince people that they were on the right side and that the enemy was wrong. Not only did governments have to convince their own people to support them, but they had to convince their own soldiers to give their all for the war effort. In the United States, President Franklin D. Roosevelt hired John F. Studebaker to travel about the country convincing the citizenry to support the war effort.

- After **World War II**, economic times boomed. Producers tried to persuade people to buy their products. Advertising became more sophisticated. At the same time, we no longer were convinced that we had made the world safe for democracy as we were shortly after World War I. We didn't trust other nations—particularly the Soviet Union. Further adding to our concern was the defeat of the Nationalist Chinese government by the Communists in 1949. We worried about communists in our own country. The House Un-American Activities Committee is an entire story all by itself. Is it possible, we wondered, that our own people could be persuaded that communism was better?

- Then the **Korean War** hit. Americans learned about brainwashing and wondered how that was possible. How could loyal American soldiers denounce the United States after they were captured by the North Korean and Chinese armies?

- Also in the **fifties**, some were upset by such books as Vance Packard's *The Hidden Persuaders* which suggested that people were being manipulated by advertisers who were using means that they were not fully aware of. They worried that they were buying products at the whim of the advertiser rather than being in full control of their own behavior.

- In **recent years**, scholars interested in persuasion have focused on narrative as a persuasive strategy that many people use. Dramas, stories, fantasies, and analogies were acknowledged as important ways to explain persuasion.

This hasty sketch of some of the history of the study of persuasion indicates that people have remained interested in this topic for centuries. That interest remains quite strong today as you can see by examining the table of contents of recent communication journals.

Many scholars have studied persuasion and have developed many theories. The large number of theories suggests the difficulty of finding a theory that accounts for all persuasion. How can some persuaders be so successful? What do they do? Can a persuader learn enough about human motivation that successful persuasion will be inevitable? What makes a person's mind work in particular ways? Why does one advertisement work and the next one fail? Students of persuasion still want answers to these questions.

People are complex and unique. What influences one person may not have much impact on another. While this may frustrate you at times, you will also be grateful that each of us is a unique person. As an image-bearer of God, you are a fantastic creation that no mere human is entirely able to figure out. We make our own choices. However, with such choice also comes responsibility. Part of that responsibility is to discover as much as you can about the processes of persuasion and then practice them ethically.

Definition

The distinction between informing and persuading is somewhat difficult to make. Even the speech to inform assumes that the speaker would also want the audience to believe the message to be truthful. During the same speech, the credibility of the speaker will have an influence on whether the audience believes the speaker to be correct. The speaker's delivery influences the audience. Therefore, even the speech to inform has some persuasion. We make a distinction between informative and persuasive speeches based upon the purpose or intent of the speaker. If the speaker wishes primarily to supply information, then that speech will be called an informative speech. If the speaker intends to change or modify the opinions, attitudes, beliefs, or actions of the audience, then that speech will be considered persuasive. Thus, a persuasive speech is one that seeks to change

attitudes, beliefs, or actions of the audience.

Theories of Persuasion

Two different approaches have been used in the study of persuasion: rhetorical theory and attitude research. Rhetorical theory has studied persuasion from the point of view of the speaker—what he can do to influence the audience. Most of the history of speech scholarship before the twentieth century focused on the speaker.

More modern theories focus on attitude change within the audience. They range from analyzing the impact of language and the use of symbols to the study of how narratives function to persuade. Scientific research methods were used to attempt to explain persuasion.

Much of this text focuses on speakers. Logical argumentation is an essential element in good persuasion. We reserve our discussion of evidence and reasoning for another chapter. How credibility in a speaker develops and works in an audience is also reserved for another chapter. In the remainder of this chapter we want to focus on appeals which the speaker makes to the audience. We will describe briefly some of the popular methods speakers use to appeal for acceptance of their messages.

Appeals are statements made by the speaker which are based on attitudes, beliefs, needs, or emotions in the audience. If speakers know what their audiences are thinking and feeling, they use that knowledge in their speeches.

• Reinforcement Theory

One of the simplest theories to explain speakers' appeals is *reinforcement theory*. This theory maintains that we change our attitudes to receive rewards. For example, a child will practice piano playing if rewarded with candy or praise. The audience seeks rewards. Advertisers often use this theory as in the example of a person being rewarded with sex appeal as a result of using the right toothpaste.

• Need Theory

Need theory is another way of explaining some persuasive appeals. An audience will change attitudes, beliefs, or opinions to satisfy its needs: biological, physical, emotional, spiritual, or other needs. If a speaker knows that many in the audience are unemployed because a local factory closed, he or she can appeal directly to the need to support government job training programs. A difficult

question is: can the speaker or the audience distinguish needs from wants. Many persuaders claim that it is too difficult to make that distinction. However, it is our opinion that distinguishing legitimate needs from wants is the speaker's and the audience's responsibility.

• Balance Theories

A third set of theories is called *balance theories.* These theories assert that attitudes change so a balance of attitudes or desires can be achieved. Suppose, for example, your friend likes Chinese food, but you do not. When you and your friend decide to eat at a Chinese restaurant, your attitude toward Chinese food will improve or your attitude toward your friend will change. The various balance theories have three common assumptions:

1. That psychological imbalance is unpleasant or uncomfortable.
2. That we are therefore pressed to reduce that imbalance.
3. That the imbalance is reduced by a change in attitude.

These theories also help to explain emotional appeals. A Driver Education teacher can appeal to students' fears of accidents to persuade them to support laws which punish drunken driving. Parents' love of their children can become the basis for an appeal to improve schools. Distrust of the government is often the basis for speeches aimed at persuading people to join militia groups. Frequently emotional appeals are not based on solid evidence and reasoning, and we maintain that unsupported emotional appeals are unethical.

A more thorough study of persuasion, including rhetorical theories, occurs in other college courses, but several observations should be made about the discussion above. An audience's beliefs and perspective on life have a major impact on its response to persuasion. The speaker's beliefs will influence the persuasive message he or she develops and delivers. Persuasion is strongly related to the values of the speaker and the values of the audience. When considering beliefs and values, you are ultimately concerned with the direction of life.

Principles for Persuasion

The basic ethical principles discussed in an earlier chapter form the basis for the evaluation of the types of appeals a persuader may use to design a persuasive speech. The speaker must treat the members of the audience with full respect. This means that the speaker must be completely honest and truthful. Thorough analysis of the audience is required. In doing that audience analysis, consider these

important questions:

√ What are the values of the audience?

√ What are the beliefs and opinions of the audience?

√ Should the audience even be approached with this idea or product?

√ Is the idea or product of value to them?

√ How emotionally involved is the audience with my idea?

√ How does this idea or product fit into the direction of their lives?

We recommend the following design for persuasive speeches to help you implement the principles that form the basis for this book.

Design of the Persuasive Speech

The following steps will help you to implement ethical principles.

1. Analyze the audience.
2. Research the topic thoroughly. Find the best evidence possible and the amount of evidence needed to support all parts of your position.
3. Develop the organization of the speech.
   a. Establish the thesis statement and organizational pattern after asking what would be the most appropriate way to approach the audience with this idea.
   b. Develop the sub-points and the necessary evidence including the documentation (giving the complete sources) of the evidence.
   c. Establish the value of the product or idea, and supply evidence to support its value. Check to be sure that the value and supporting evidence are included in the outline.
   d. Examine the problems, drawbacks, and disadvantages of the idea or product and place them in the outline. The problems or disadvantages must be included in the speech as well as the advantages. Include also how the problems or disadvantages can be alleviated.
   e. Check for and include all necessary additional information. Don't aim for the minimum amount for persuasive results, but go beyond it to guarantee honest coverage.
4. Consider or examine carefully the appeals you will use with the audience. Will you use emotional appeals? If so, how should you use them? Will

you appeal to needs? Are you avoiding appeals to wants? Will you appeal to values? To which beliefs will you appeal? Will you use primarily argument? Why or why not?

5. Consider any possibilities for implementing visual aids in your speech.
6. Test the speech for honesty and respect.
7. Check and improve word choice.
8. Prepare the manuscript or note cards in final form.
9. Practice often and be sure that the nonverbal elements correspond to the verbal. This is a matter of honesty.
10. Continue to observe and study persuasion, the persuader, and the persuadees. Consider such questions as: What techniques are being used? What techniques should be used? How do people respond to the techniques? How should people respond to persuasion? What is proper persuasion? Your continued study will also prepare you to be a better critic of public address.

Review Questions for Chapter 8

1. What is the difference between informing and persuading?
2. Describe each of the different theories of persuasion.
3. What principles should guide speakers as they develop persuasive messages?
4. What construction method should speakers use to make their speeches?
5. What are appeals? Why are they important in persuasion?
6. Why must speakers have an important, timely topic for a persuasive speech? Answer on the basis of ethical standards.
7. Before constructing a speech, speakers must _____ .

Chapter Nine
Credibility

The chapter on persuasive speaking implied that credibility has a persuasive effect. Researchers have studied this concept extensively. Why, they wondered, do some speakers have more credibility than others? Another question they pursue is this: how big is the factor of credibility in persuasion? We know that advertisers want endorsements from people with high credibility. Politicians follow the same pattern.

In this chapter we discuss the ingredients of credibility, define the term, indicate the ways that a speaker can improve credibility, and discuss the audience's responsibility regarding its own credibility and the credibility of the speaker. Both speaker and audience are responsible for the credibility that develops during public address.

Ingredients

In *The Art of Rhetoric,* Aristotle recognized three general types of appeals: 1) the ethos of the speaker which is similar to credibility, 2) pathos, or bringing the people into a state of emotion by speech, and 3) logos, or reasoning which demonstrates the truth. Within ethos, Aristotle included the speaker's past accomplishments, his public recognition and popularity, his social class, and his past speech successes.

Modern researchers have tried to determine exactly what the ingredients of credibility are so other questions could also be answered. Here are some of their questions:

» Why is a speaker more successful with one audience than with another?
» How long does credibility influence the audience?
» What can a speaker do to improve his credibility?
» Was credibility a major factor in Nixon's reported loss of the Kennedy-Nixon debates?
» Why did Ted Kennedy have credibility when many of his supporters did not agree with his positions?
» Why did many people want Colin Powell to run for President when they did not know where he stood on various issues?
» What gave Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., credibility in the minds of many?

» Why are celebrities paid huge fees for endorsing certain products when their knowledge of these products is no more than that of the ordinary person?

» What, researchers asked, are key ingredients in credibility?

Many similar questions have been developed and tested in modern attitude change research. For years, researchers thought that they had uncovered the ingredients of credibility as authoritativeness, trustworthiness, and dynamism. They thought that if speakers had high authority or expertise, they would be more persuasive. If they were considered honest, they would be more effective. And if they were considered active, energetic, emphatic, and aggressive, more people would yield to their persuasion.

However, more recent research has found that credibility consists of the interaction of authoritativeness, trustworthiness, dynamism, the degree of extroversion, openness, open-mindedness, speaking skills, competence, intelligence, power, goodwill, and similarity between speaker and audience. Thus, researchers have found that credibility consists of many ingredients. Credibility is a *process* of interrelationships involved in the communication and credibility is not just a list of *speaker attributes*. The greater the number of similarities between the speaker and the members of the audience, the more credibility exists.

Modern research also indicates that the more credible a speaker is, the more attitude change will take place in the audience toward the speaker's goal. However, you should also remember that the influence of credibility decreases over time. The influence of a speaker's credibility tends to decline faster than the influence of arguments and evidence.

Credibility Defined

By now you will notice that credibility is given or assigned to a speaker *by* the audience. Credibility is based on what the audience knows about and perceives in the speaker. The credibility they assign to the speaker will influence how much they will accept or believe the speaker. Similarly, the audience is given credibility by the speaker. One can conclude then that *credibility is that degree of acceptability and believability that an audience attributes to a speaker or a speaker attributes to an audience.*

The Speaker and Credibility

What can the speaker do to influence credibility with particular audiences?

As a speaker, you must begin with the basic principles of honesty and respect for the audience. If the audience senses dishonesty in a speaker, credibility very quickly drops to a low level. Similarly, listeners will not give credibility to a speaker when they sense that the speaker does not care much for them. Applying these principles to each part of the speaking process will give you a means for encouraging high credibility for all speaking situations. Note carefully that credibility is given by the audience—it is not carried by the speaker. All the speaker can do is *influence* the credibility given by the audience. We maintain, however, that your credibility will be improved by following the ethical principles we have used throughout this book.

We recommend that speakers use the following checklist:

- √ Maintain complete honesty and demonstrate it by recognizing and handling the opponent's arguments.
- √ Become an authority. Thoroughly study and research the topic and honestly show the audience that you have done your homework.
- √ Demonstrate to your audience where you disagree with them as well as where you agree.
- √ Indicate your own commitment to your subject and your audience.
- √ Develop good speech delivery.
- √ Avoid deception of the audience with voice, clothing, and facial expression.
- √ Use good organization, evidence, and argument.

Audience Credibility

Just as the audience gives credibility to the speaker, so the speaker gives credibility to the audience. As a speaker, you will decide what your audience is like. In other words, you should do an audience analysis. You will decide whether the audience knows much about the topic, and whether the audience will be dynamic, lively, and interested. You will decide how much credibility the audience should be given.

Check this idea yourself. Ask yourself these questions: Would I do more preparation for this speech if the audience were the Board of Trustees of Western College than if it were a communication class? Would I spend more time researching and writing this speech if the audience were the faculty of Iowa State University? What if it were the national legislature? We believe that you would prepare differently. You would spend more time in research. You would spend

more time practicing the delivery. You probably would be more nervous. All because you, as the speaker, have given greater credibility to certain audiences.

Remember that credibility is related to persuasion. The more credibility the speakers have, the more likely they are to have a persuasive effect upon the audience for a time. Credibility of the audience works the same way. The more credibility the audience has, the more likely you, as the speaker, will be persuaded by the audience or your audience analysis. You are more likely to modify your position or to soften arguments if you believe the audience is highly credible.

Credibility is a clear demonstration of the characteristics of communication you studied in the first chapter—persuasive and interactive. The audience gives credibility to the speaker, and the speaker gives credibility to the audience. Each gives credibility to the other, which then influences the one that gave the credibility. The audience is influenced by the credibility it gives to the speaker, and the speaker is influenced by the credibility he or she gives to the audience.

Since the audience attributes credibility to the speaker, and since the audience also has credibility, the audience has significant responsibilities. First, audience members should recognize that the speaker's credibility affects them and that their credibility affects the speaker. They will more likely be persuaded by a speaker to whom they attribute high credibility. Occasionally, audience members do not check carefully the evidence and reasoning of a speaker, because they think the speaker is very believable. Speakers will also notice when audiences yield credibility to them. For example, cult leaders know when their followers give them high credibility. Sadly, often these cult leaders then manipulate followers for the leaders' own selfish ends.

Second, the audience must maintain an ethical stance; that is, concern for the other person. Therefore, they should not deliberately try to ruin the credibility of others even while making a clear decision on the speaker's ethics and perspective. In the chapter on ethics we reminded you that the purpose of communication is to "build others up according to their needs."

Third, the audience should use only valid information to pass judgment about a speaker. Do not make judgments based on the speaker's voice, personal appearance, rumor, or personality. Of course, appearances, rumors, etc., affect an audience, but their basis of judgment should be only on information that is clearly known.

Fourth, the audience should assist the speaker in building credibility. Work to help the speaker maintain honesty and respect while discouraging dishonesty and disrespect. Listeners are responsible for speakers and thus they should help them

to improve their speaking and to maintain ethical principles.

Finally, the audience should work to build its own credibility. It should also maintain an honest handling of the opponent's arguments, become an authority through research and study, demonstrate where it agrees and disagrees with the speaker, and become committed to the subject and the speaker. The audience should avoid deception of the speaker by improper use of clothing, of its behaviors, and of its official status.

Review Questions for Chapter 9

1. What is credibility?
2. What are the key ingredients in credibility.
3. What can speakers do to improve credibility?
4. What is the audience's responsibility in credibility?
5. One could say that by granting high credibility to a speaker the audience is persuading itself. Explain this statement.

Chapter Ten
Audience Analysis

The first step in the design and construction of a speech is audience analysis. Speakers must know as much as possible about the audience. Only if they know the audience well can they tailor their speech to fit that audience. The ethical principles laid out in this book require audience analysis.

Students hesitate to do this step of analyzing the audience in beginning speech classes. They would rather give the speech as they developed it in the library. Not only is doing audience analysis much work, but they sometimes discover that the audience has different views than they had supposed. For example, a student of environmental science would like to give a speech on the need for cleaner drinking water in our country. However, audience analysis may demonstrate that all of the members of the class already believe this same position. The audience does not need this speech. That means the speaker should probably find a new topic or change the direction of the original topic.

Audience analysis has been mentioned several times before—in the method of preparing a speech and in the discussion of the persuasive speech. In this chapter we will discuss the importance of audience analysis, provide questions the speaker should consider, suggest methods of doing the analysis, and offer recommendations for when audience analysis should be done.

Importance of Audience Analysis

Audience analysis is at the very core of the communication process. In a Christian perspective, it is integrally involved with a very high view of persons. Other persons deserve your full respect because of who they are as image bearers of God. God clearly tells us what our relationship with others must be ("Love your neighbor as yourself"). Persons should not be treated simply as computers: if you push the right buttons, they will respond in only one (the desired) way. Nor is one person like every other individual. Each person responds in his or her own creative ways. You cannot show the other person respect if you concentrate only on *your* messages and *you* as a speaker when you make a presentation. Furthermore, you are responsible for the others in the communication because they are being shaped by you. Thus, while many texts simply talk about the necessity for audience analysis to aid speakers' effectiveness, Christians have a far deeper reason for

doing it carefully.

One more observation: a speaker who gives a speech without audience analysis can be compared to a person who publicly donates money to a worthy cause just for others to see. Both actions are for *self*-glorification. Public speaking can easily become an ego trip. Many speakers try to express only what *they* want their listeners to believe, without considering what their listeners believe or need, and how listeners differ. (This is probably true of many managers in particular, because of their position, power, or status.)

Effectiveness should not be ignored even though this is not the prime reason for doing audience analysis. Available evidence strongly suggests that speakers who analyze their audiences carefully and who try to adapt to the audience are more successful than those who do not. If audience analysis is not done, giving a successful public speech is a hit-or-miss affair.

Questions for Audience Analysis

What needs to be considered in audience analysis? The answer will vary for each speech, each speaker, and each audience. There are, however, some general types of questions that a speaker should apply or ask of the audience before giving a speech. Several of these are listed below. You should adapt these questions to fit your own speech purposes. In several cases, you will have to go beyond these to more detailed questions that specifically relate to your subject and your audience.

The *primary* concerns or questions that all speakers should ask are:

√ What does this audience *need* ?

√ What values does this audience hold?

√ What attitudes would this audience have toward my thesis?

√ What is the purpose of the gathering?

Secondary questions which most speaker should ask are:

√ How large is the audience? What adaptations will I have to make to address properly an audience of this size?

√ What is the educational level of the audience?

√ What are their occupations?

√ In what kind of cultural setting have audience members lived?

- √ What might be the cultural background of the audience?
- √ What is the age of the audience?
- √ What is the reaction of the audience toward me as a speaker?
- √ What are the interests of this particular audience?

These questions are by no means exhaustive, but they show what must be done. For example, if the audience is somewhat hostile toward your position, the speaker will need to build credibility early in the speech. Handling arguments very carefully is essential. If the audience is not well-informed on the subject, the speaker will have to lay some groundwork first.

Failures in Audience Analysis

An example of failure of audience analysis in a beginning speech class occurs when a student gives an anti-smoking speech when no one in the class smokes. Another example of failure to analyze the audience carefully in the same setting occurs when a speaker tries to persuade the audience to be against abortion when they are already committed to that position. A fair comment by the instructor after such a speech might be: "We didn't need to hear this speech; you wasted our time." Instead the speaker could have urged an audience of college students to support television ads which celebrate life. One of us once heard a student speak on "Why We Should Eat Mice." Needless to say, the speech was not well-received by the class. Speakers simply must know the audience as much as possible before speaking.

Methods of Analyzing

Since audience analysis is a time-consuming matter, students often ask about methods for audience analysis. Often, it is difficult to interview every person carefully. Try these:

- √ A brief questionnaire does not take long to write or tally.
- √ Sometimes a quick show of hands will give you the information you need.
- √ Paying close attention to the introductory speeches and other speeches will give you considerable information about your class.

- √ Daily interaction with class members helps.
- √ Sometimes sampling, if done carefully, is an alternative method to interviewing everyone.
- √ Be careful about guesswork. A guess is a poor substitute for finding out. In addition, perhaps the instructor will think you have not done your analysis carefully and will question the audience after the speech. On occasion, this can become embarrassing.
- √ Working through a third party is helpful sometimes. If you know the roommates of a person in your class, you can get some information from them. If you know the reference groups to which people belong, you can draw some inferences about their attitudes and values.
- √ While preparing a speech you will have to decide what information you need from the audience and devise means of getting the information at that time. No one recipe exists that fits all situations.

A comment should be inserted here about adapting to the audience. Adaptation is necessary, but you must be careful not to try to become all things to all people. Uphold ethical principles. Remain honest with yourself and with the audience. This might mean that the audience will reject both you and your message. However, if the message is one that the audience needs to hear and is given in the proper way, then you must proceed. Remember, the prophets in the Old Testament were rejected also, but they had to remain faithful to their calling. To expect to please all listeners in all of your speeches is unrealistic.

When to Analyze: Before, During, and After

Audience analysis *before* a speech is critical, but it does not stop there. It should also be implemented *during* a speech. For example, by paying close attention to nonverbal communication during a speech, you can sense the extent to which the audience understands the speech. Several puzzled looks should alert you to the need for further clarification. Sensitivity to the physical setting of the speech should continue during the speech. For example, you must be sure that all can hear you. When audience attention lags, the speaker must adapt. These examples of analysis during a speech demonstrate that you should not read a speech without looking at the audience. Nor should you constantly look above the audience. Such insensitivity to the audience is not only disrespectful—it is poor communication practice.

Finally, audience analysis should also *follow* the presentation of a speech.

Speakers have influenced the audience, and it is their moral obligation to determine the extent of the influence. It is possible, of course, that the audience has been misguided, and the speaker should know that. It is helpful for future speeches if you can determine which tactics were effective and which ones were not. Often speeches serve as a starting point for further interaction on the particular subject. Often speakers wish to clarify or pursue the subject with at least some members of the audience. This activity can only occur, however, if speakers are willing to risk discovering the reaction of the audience to their speeches. Much reaction will probably take place in your class after the speech. Normally, that is called "speech criticism," which will be discussed more fully later. Let it be clear here, however, that criticism should be a positive activity that shows how a speaker can improve. It should not be a series of negative comments.

Audience Responsibility

The audience, too, is responsible for helping speakers in their analysis. This means giving the information the speaker needs, whether that be *before, during,* or *after* the speech. When speakers fail to analyze the audience adequately, the audience should tell them. In the perspective described earlier, we noted that both parties are fully responsible for the communication that takes place. Therefore the audience members should help the speaker understand the audience.

Review Questions for Chapter 10

1. Why is failure to analyze the audience unethical?
2. What questions should speakers consider in their analysis of audiences before speaking?
3. If a speaker tries to persuade this audience to attend college after high school, the audience could say that the speech is poor. Why? Explain why the speaker is ethical or unethical.
4. Why must speakers analyze their audiences before, during, and after the speech? Is the analysis the same for all times? Why or why not?
5. What should speakers check when they are analyzing the audience during the speech?
6. What should speakers check when they are analyzing the audience after the speech?

Chapter Eleven
Evidence

Evidence should be the beginning point for persuasion. While it is true that many persuaders use little or no evidence; e.g., most advertisers, we consider evidence essential in most attempts to influence others. People should make decisions based upon good information and argument. The first section of this chapter provides an explanation of what evidence is and how evidence relates to argumentation. We will explain the relation between argumentation and persuasion. Through an example, we will try to dispel the notion that argument is something bad. The second section contains several tests that you should apply to the evidence offered in speeches. The third section offers several cases for you to examine.

Evidence

Earlier we stated that the supporting materials for persuasion consisted of persuasive appeals and arguments. *Evidence* has been called *the raw materials of argumentation.* It normally *consists of facts, figures, and opinions.* Before going into evidence, however, we should briefly examine the term *argument.*

Evidence and Argument

To many people argument is negative. It disrupts families, friendships, churches, and neighbors. However, as we use the term in communication, it normally refers to something positive and good. The term *argument,* as it is used in communication (and throughout this book), refers to *a unit of thought containing a claim (or conclusion) and the evidence and reasoning to support that claim.* Reasoning is the way people talk their way from the raw material (evidence) to a conclusion or claim. For example, if we make the claim that the students from our college are good students, you might ask us for support. The argument would then go something like this:

> Our students prepare their speeches carefully; they study hard; they do well on tests; and they get good grades.
>
> Any students who do these things should be called good students; at least most teachers would generally agree that these are criteria for classifying students as good.

Therefore, the students from our college are good students."

Notice that the first sentence of this set contains the raw data, the facts; in other words, the evidence. The second sentence is the process of going from the evidence to the claim; i.e., it connects the evidence to the claim. This process is called reasoning. The third sentence is the conclusion or claim. All three sentences together constitute an argument. Scholars constantly make arguments. Making arguments and putting them together is called the process of argumentation. Argumentation appeals to a person's thinking process and is therefore a major element in persuasion.

Argument must be distinguished from quarrel. Arguing is a fine, scholarly process. It is not bickering or talking back or any of the negative characteristics associated with the word in its common use. Argument is one of the chief ways of persuading. Of course, you must make sure that your arguments are sound and well-supported. The first step in preparing arguments carefully is to select and test evidence. Thus we move next to tests of evidence, or questions you should ask. These should be applied to the evidence you are considering for your speech and to the evidence that others offer in their persuasion.

Tests of Evidence

√ *Is there enough evidence?*

Although this test is quite simple, it is a necessary one, since people often attempt to persuade on the basis of little or no evidence. You need not go much further than to examine most advertising to find out that evidence is often in very short supply. Too quickly people assume that evidence is not needed because, after all, "everybody knows. . . ."

√ *Does the evidence tell you what you want to know?*

Just because evidence is offered does not mean that either the evidence supports the point or that the evidence is relevant to what you want to know. A speaker might give plenty of evidence that atrocities are being committed in the Balkans, and that human rights are being violated, but that does not mean that you should support Amnesty International. Instead, you would want to know what is the guiding philosophy of Amnesty International, and what it can do to prevent human suffering.

√ *Is the evidence clear?*

Again, this is a common and easy question to ask, but frequently speakers are not clear. You need to get into the frame of reference of the audience to ask this question. Would the audience think your evidence is clear?

√ *s the evidence consistent with other known evidence?*

If it contradicts other evidence, then you will need to sort out carefully which evidence meets the tests offered here. At times, audience members might reject evidence if it is not consistent with other evidence they already know.

√ *Is the evidence consistent within itself?*

Perhaps a hypothetical example will illustrate how devastating this test can be. A medical journal reports that a "new pain-killing drug is ineffective and might be positively harmful." Notice that the drug is said to be *positively* harmful or it *might* be harmful. It cannot be both at the same time. There is a contradiction or at least an inconsistency in terms here.

√ *Is the evidence the most recent available?*

Just because evidence is recent or the most recent available does not mean that it is the best. Evidence should meet all the tests. However the thrust of this question aims at using the newest evidence available. When giving a speech on what the government should do for the unemployed, use the latest unemployment figures (assuming they were collected correctly) to establish the need for government help. Figures that are three years old are out of date.

√ *Is the source of the evidence reliable?*

Several questions relate to the source; that is, the magazine or person or newscast from which you might obtain facts, figures, or opinions. Particularly important is this question of reliability. You should inquire into reliability before using any source. All sources are not equally reliable! For example, the news stories in the *National Enquirer* are very suspect. This magazine consists of sensationalized reports and appeals to sensational gossip. Most journalists deplore the tactics of this magazine. It simply does not have a record of reliability. Besides, there are many instances where its reliability has been denied—even in court. Many of those who

have been featured in this magazine have denied the veracity of the stories printed in it. Reliability of *The Reader's Digest* and *World Book* is better, but you should be careful in using these sources because they are shortened in order to appeal to audiences that are not highly educated. On the other hand, articles in scholarly journals have greater reliability than most other sources since several editors check the articles before they are printed. Journals have important reputations in the academic world, which editors wish to maintain.

√ *Is the source biased in any way?*

This test may be difficult to apply, but you should try to check it out. If it is a magazine, it may very well have a bias, for example, *Commentary* clearly has a pro-Israel bias. *The Reader's Digest* is strongly against the use of alcohol and cigarettes. *U.S.News & World Report* maintains a conservative stance on economics and tends to be against government programs for social welfare. None of this means that the stories printed in these magazines are inaccurate. Indeed, *U.S.News & World Report* has earned a fine reputation for fairness in reporting. Nevertheless, its editorials favor one point of view of which you should be aware. In quoting people, you should be alert for biases in the same way as you would be in magazines. All of us have some biases that make us see the world through our own glasses. We cannot avoid this. Nor is it all bad. However, speakers should be alert to the potential impact of bias on information.

√ *Is the source of the evidence competent to give this evidence?*

Several sub-questions that challenge the competency of a source follow from this basic question. These questions are:

- Is the source an expert on the subject?

  If the answer is yes, you still should know what official signs of respectability of this person has. Consider the source's training, education, and experience in the area on which he or she is speaking. Is this person well-regarded by other authorities on this subject? For example, one should be suspicious when Ed Asner, a television actor, claims that government policy toward the treatment of animals is erroneous.

- Was the source able to observe the matter in question?

  Was this person a witness? If so, was he or she detached enough to report fairly, or was the person emotionally involved? For example, if someone runs into my new car, I am likely to be irritated enough that I am not able to report the incident fairly. I am very likely to blame the other person. Again, emotional involvement is not bad, but you should be aware that it often colors the interpretation of the source.

- What standards should be used for determining competency of a source? This question is raised here because people often make the mistake of thinking that well-known people are competent. Specifically, movie stars pontificate on all kinds of topics: from life-styles to desirable government programs. They dominate late-night talks shows. Since they are well-known, people listen to what they have to say on all kinds of subjects. Another example is the frequency with which medical doctors are elected to school boards compared to other persons. Doctors are well trained in one area but not in all areas, and their training is unrelated to serving on school boards. They may be competent in one area, but this does not mean they are competent in all areas. You should make sure that the standards for competency of a source are directly related to the topic on which the source is speaking or writing.

√ *Is the evidence statistically sound?*

Statistics are complicated and here only a brief set of questions will be raised. A statistics course would give a better idea of what statistical tests should be applied to a set of numbers and how those tests should be done. Following is a short list of basic questions that you should raise about the content of speeches:

- Are enough statistics presented?

- Have accurate statistics been collected?

- Do these numbers fit of what the speaker is describing?

  This is often not an easy question to answer, but it forces the

speaker to explain how the figures, such as percentages were collected and how they fit the argument.

- Has the sampling (if a sample is used) been done fairly?

  This is closely related to the previous question. When a large group is being studied, usually a random sample is the best approach to use since it might be impossible to check all persons. The researcher can also determine mathematically the chance of error.

- Have the statistics been classified correctly?

  Here you ask about what goes into a particular class the speaker is describing. For example, if a speaker is talking about the number of college students enrolled, is he or she also including part-time students? This question often arises when colleges compare enrollment numbers.

- If a visual aid is being used, does it show the data fairly?

- Are the statistics the most recent available?

- Were the statistics collected over a sufficient period of time?

  Some information must be gathered over a long period of time to be reliable. For example, unemployment percentages can vary from season to season so one must look at an entire year or more for accuracy.

- Is only reasonable precision claimed for the numbers?

  People often think numbers tell the whole story, but that is not actually the case. Some percentages might be precise, while others are estimates. For example, to say that over 60 percent of the population prefers Glitter toothpaste is not the same as stating that a soap is 99.4 percent pure.

- Are the data interpreted reasonably?

  Interpretations are a crucial part of using numbers, and you should be very clear about your interpretations of numbers. For example, an east coast newspaper had a headline that one-third of the coeds at

the local college married their professors. What was misleading was that only three coeds attended the college that year.

- Are there significant exceptions to the statistics?
  If there are exceptions, you should be able to explain why this is so.

Several other questions could easily be added. These give an idea of the type of questions you should ask about the numbers that are used in speeches.

√ *Is the evidence cumulative?*
Does the speaker only use a very short time to gather information? For example, to only look at one month's inflation figures is not nearly as good as looking at inflation figures over a period of time such as a year or two, or more. Not only does this test apply to statistics, but it also applies to other kinds of evidence.

This set of tests indicates the questions you should ask about the data you or another speaker is considering or presenting. More questions can be asked. The purpose of these questions is to inquire about the truth of the facts, figures, and opinions used as the bases for argument. You should be so familiar with these tests of evidence that you apply them almost automatically any time you consider an argument. You probably are already doing this. We ask you to be aware of what you are doing, and that you be systematic in testing evidence. If an argument fails at this point, the rest of the argument also fails. Then you need go no further.

If the evidence does meet all the appropriate tests, then you move on to examine the connections between the evidence and the conclusion or claim. This process is called reasoning. If you are able to test evidence well, you are a long way down the road toward improving your argumentation abilities.

Evidence and the Audience

Assuming that your evidence has met all the above tests, there are a few questions you should ask about the relationship of your evidence to your audience. Here are a few questions to ask yourself:

√ Is the educational level of my audience such that they can understand the

evidence I wish to offer?

If not, reconsider using it or think of ways to explain the evidence clearly and concisely.

√ Would the audience accept the source I plan to use?

If they are not likely to accept it, consider finding another source that yields the same information. If you must use this source, you will have to explain why your audience should accept it as a credible source.

√ Is the evidence consistent with the beliefs of my audience?

If the answer is "no," this does not mean you should throw the evidence out. Instead, you would be wise to understand the beliefs of the audience and why those beliefs do not fit with your evidence. Then you will need to explain why your evidence should be accepted.

√ Is the evidence documented for the audience?

You must be able to answer this in the affirmative! You must give the complete source.

Review Questions for Chapter 11

1. Define evidence.
2. Define argument.
3. How does argument differ from quarrel?
4. What are the tests of evidence?
5. How should speakers test sources of evidence?
6. How should speakers test statistical evidence?
7. Why must speakers check whether their evidence fits the audience?
8. What questions should speakers ask about the relation of their evidence to the audience?

Exercises in Evidence

Examine each of the following pieces of evidence for any unsound qualities. Suppose that it were used in a speech. Apply as many of the tests of evidence as you can. Be sure all tests are appropriate; not all tests fit all evidence. Plan to discuss these in class.

1. Sparkle toothpaste is good for your teeth because it contains CD-7S, a clinically proven ingredient contained in no other toothpaste.

2. The Institute for American Health estimates that fully 15 % of people living in urban areas will suffer from mental health problems in their lifetime.

3. More people are getting cancer than ever before, so it is obvious that the government must increase its funding for cancer research.

4. According to the book, *The Foreign Aid Conspiracy,* the government is wasting millions of dollars giving aid to developed countries which could survive without our hard-earned taxes.

5. The Chief of Police in Baltimore reports, "Crime is on the upswing in Baltimore."

6. The United States must be heading steadily toward economic disaster. You only have to look at how unemployment figures have increased over the last five months.

7. *U.S. News & World Report* stated in an editorial recently that Americans are much more concerned about proper moral values than they are issues of taxes or how to deal with crime in our country.

8. As everybody probably knows, it is much safer to fly in airplanes than it is to ride in cars. Safety experts estimate that airplanes are seven times safer than cars. Therefore, there is no solid basis for many people's fear of flying.

9. Nine out of ten doctors recommend CBA aspirin over any other brand.

10. Some people think motorcycles are unsafe. They have very little basis for their opinion because only 10% of motorcycles on the road have been involved in any accidents.

11. Seventy-seven percent of American drivers go over the speed limit on interstate highways according to the National Automobile Association.

12. Eighty-five percent of all Western students say that tuition is too high. Therefore, the tuition should be lowered.

13. Deborah Tannen, a writer of popular books on gender communication, claims that men and women cannot understand each other because their communication styles are so different.

Chapter Twelve
Reasoning

Reasoning is closely associated with argument, evidence, and good use of language. Evidence is an important part of argument. Argument has already been defined in the chapter on evidence and that definition should be reviewed. Good reasoning and its relationship to evidence will be discussed in this chapter. You should also remember the material of this chapter when you read the chapter on language. Many fallacies in reasoning are related to word choice such as jargon and ambiguity. This chapter contains a discussion of the rationale or need for good reasoning, the types of reasoning, the structure of argument, testing of reasoning, and some fallacies in reasoning.

Rationale or Need

Good reasoning and a knowledge of good argument are needed by speakers and listeners for several reasons. First, speakers should know proper reasoning to test the arguments they will be using in their speeches. By knowing the structure of argument, the tests for various arguments, and fallacies of argument, they can check their speeches to guarantee that they do influence the audience appropriately. If speakers wish to demonstrate respect for their audiences and maintain a high regard for communication, they will check their arguments. Second, listeners must also know good reasoning and its tests, so they can check arguments used by speakers. Audience members must know how to check arguments and to recognize fallacies to avoid becoming victims of poor reasoning. Listeners are also responsible to speakers and other members of the audience to help them use good argument. Finally, good reasoning is not limited to the speaking-listening situation. All persons should use good reasoning to guarantee good decisions and thereby demonstrate respect for others and themselves.

Types of Reasoning and Argument

• Deductive Reasoning

In deductive reasoning, one moves from a generalization to a specific instance or case.

Students of logic have traditionally studied the syllogism, a form of deductive reasoning. The syllogism is an argument that has a major premise (All men walk on two feet.), a minor premise (John is a man.), and a conclusion (Therefore, John

walks on two feet.). The syllogism has various forms and different tests to check the logic of each form. However, the study of the syllogism will be left for a logic course.

Deductive reasoning also can have its weakness. Conclusions from the general rule can be wrong or incomplete. An often accepted conclusion or deduction is that water boils at 100° centigrade. However, if you place a thermometer in a cup of water and check its boiling point while camping in the mountains at 10,000 feet elevation, you will find that water boils at a lower temperature. What you did not include in the generalization is that water boils at 100° centigrade *at sea level.*

• Inductive Reasoning

Inductive reasoning can be defined as reasoning from specific cases to a generalization. An example of inductive reasoning would be to reason that since all dogs you have seen have four legs (specific cases), therefore one of the characteristics of dogs is four legs (generalization).

An important weakness of inductive reasoning is generalizing from too few specific cases. For example, if we generalize about the characteristics of dogs based on one dog (Candy), then it is possible to say that all dogs are brown, white, and black, have large floppy ears, and are female.

Both forms of reasoning demand good logical thought and good testing of the argument.

Structure of Argument—Toulmin Model

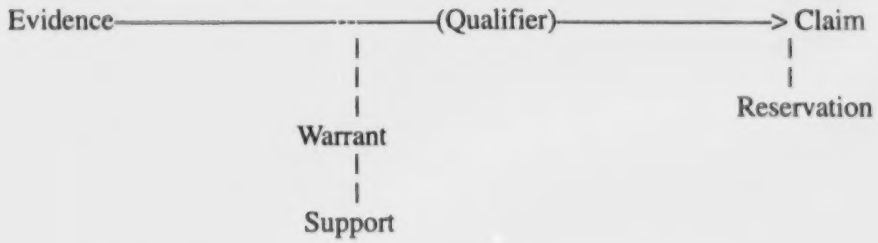
Stephen Toulmin has proposed a way to structure an argument that we find helpful.[17] His model is a combination of inductive and deductive and fits the pattern of thought used by many people. In the chapter on evidence, you have already read about some parts of reasoning: evidence, argument, and claim (or conclusion). *Evidence consists of facts, figures, and opinions.* It includes opinions or testimony of authorities (experts) on the subject, statistics, and facts. All of these are the materials used as the foundation for an argument. The term *argument* refers to a *unit of thought containing a claim (or conclusion) and the evidence and reasoning to support that claim.* Reasoning is the way you talk your way from the raw material (evidence) to a conclusion or claim.

The Toulmin model is a way of sketching an argument in order to examine

[17] For a more complete study of the Toulmin model, see The Uses of Argument by Stephen Toulmin (Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 1958).

each of its parts. While there are other models that may be helpful in sketching out an argument, we have found this one to be most useful. In this section, the model will be explained step by step. First, we will define each part. Then we will show how these parts work in an argument. You should become familiar with this structure so testing of arguments will be easier to do.

The complete model with the definition of each of the elements is as follows:



The complete argument consists of:

1. The evidence (statistics, examples, etc.) that speakers have for the argument.
2. The warrant is usually an accepted generalization that serves as the basis for the logical relationship between the evidence and the claim. Often a warrant statement begins with the word *since,* or a similar term.
3. The support is additional statements or additional evidence that expand the warrant, and show that the warrant is valid.
4. The claim or conclusion of the argument.
5. The qualifier indicates the degree of strength (or believability or acceptability) placed on the claim. Often it is one word or a very short phrase. It can also be a percentage. (Examples of qualifiers are all, most, some, and probably.)
6. The reservation indicates possible exceptions to the claim. The reservation is often identified by the word *unless,* or some other word that indicates exceptions to the claim.

Sometimes arguments contain other statements relating evidence and claim.

A simplified Toulmin model of argument, then, would be:

Evidence (or data) ——————————> Claim

The line between evidence and claim represents the reasoning you use to move from the evidence to the claim. The claim is a final conclusion or statement you gain from that reasoning and is usually a point that the speaker is trying to prove and wishes the audience to accept. For example, the clouds are thick and low, the wind is from the east, and the barometric pressure is going down, so it is going to rain today.

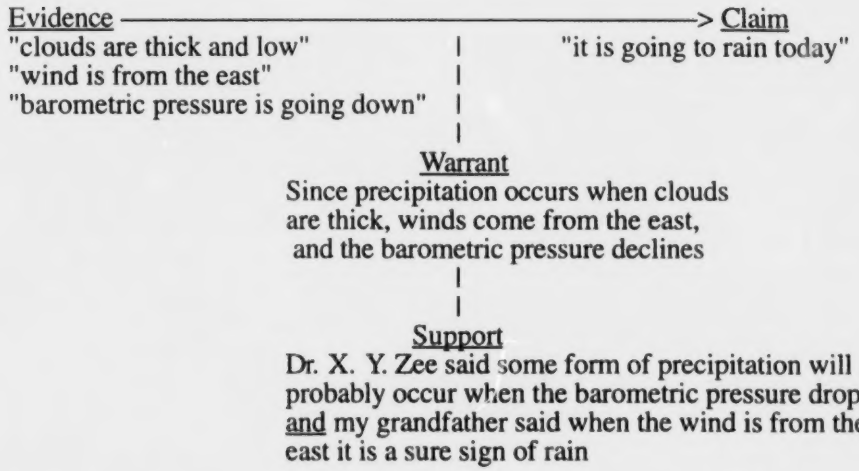
Evidence ——————————————————> Claim
"clouds are thick and low" "it is going to rain today"
"wind is from the east"
"barometric pressure is going down"

The reasoning or connection between the evidence and claim would be: the atmospheric conditions present are those needed for precipitation.

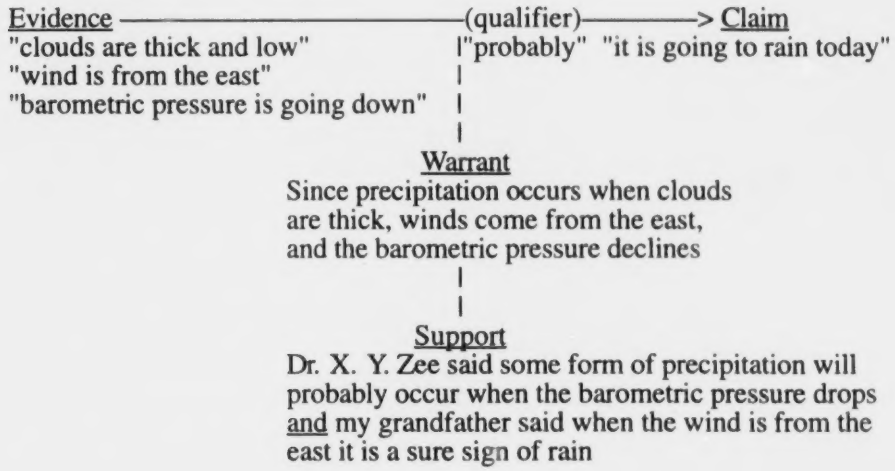
Warrants connect evidence and claim. A warrant is a generalization that contains the logical relationship between the evidence and the claim. Sometimes the warrant is stated, and at other times, it is understood. You have probably recognized its place in argument when you complained "that argument is not warranted," which meant that the warrant was not given or that you did not accept the warrant. Remember that a warrant is a generalization that connects the evidence and the claim. Sometimes it is identified by the word "since." Notice the model of the previous example as we now add the warrant, as shown in the next diagram.

Evidence ——————————————————> Claim
"clouds are thick and low" | "it is going to rain today"
"wind is from the east" |
"barometric pressure is going down" |
|
Warrant
precipitation occurs when clouds
are thick, winds come from the east,
and the barometric pressure declines

You might argue, "I don't accept that warrant." In that case we would have to support the warrant. That support could be evidence or some other logical statements. Suppose that the warrant is supported by "according to Dr. X. Y. Zee, the head of the University meteorology department, 'Some form of precipitation will probably occur when the barometric pressure drops.' And my grandfather always said that when the wind comes from the east, it is a sure sign of rain." The model would then be:

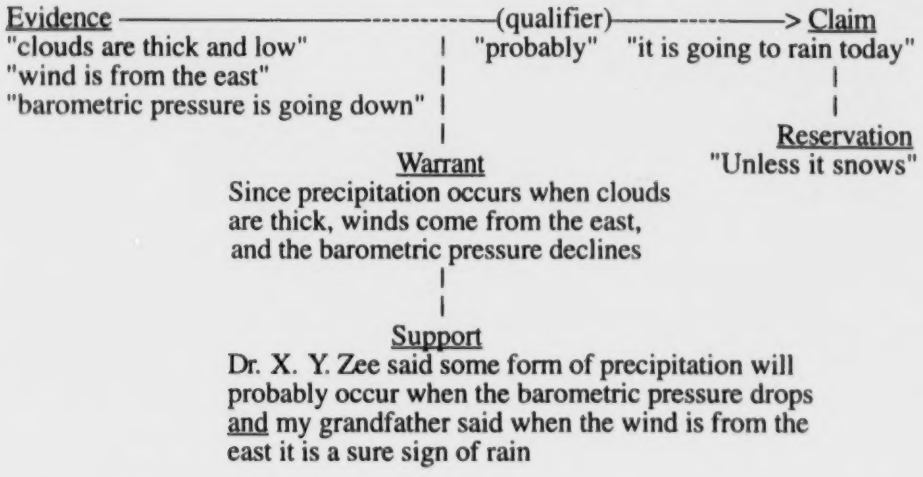

Evidence
Claim
"clouds are thick and low"
"wind is from the east"
"barometric pressure is going down"
"it is going to rain today"
Warrant
Since precipitation occurs when clouds are thick, winds come from the east, and the barometric pressure declines
Support
Dr. X. Y. Zee said some form of precipitation will probably occur when the barometric pressure drops and my grandfather said when the wind is from the east it is a sure sign of rain

Again, you might argue, "But Dr. Zee said precipitation will *'probably'* occur. He didn't say it would *absolutely* occur, which was implied in 'it is going to rain today.'" You are correct. The claim must be qualified. It must have a statement of the likelihood of its occurrence, i.e., the probability of the claim being correct. Therefore, a qualifier must be added in the reasoning process so the claim becomes "It is *probably* going to rain today." The model given above would be changed as shown in the next diagram.


Evidence
(qualifier)
Claim
"clouds are thick and low"
"wind is from the east"
"barometric pressure is going down"
"probably"
"it is going to rain today"
Warrant
Since precipitation occurs when clouds are thick, winds come from the east, and the barometric pressure declines
Support
Dr. X. Y. Zee said some form of precipitation will probably occur when the barometric pressure drops and my grandfather said when the wind is from the east it is a sure sign of rain

Finally, you could argue, "OK, but Dr. Zee did not say rain. He said

precipitation! That could be hail, rain, snow, or sleet. You said rain." Your analysis is good. You point to at least one condition that has been forgotten—temperature. Therefore, the argument has to have a reservation especially if the time of the year would lend to temperatures near freezing. The reservation in the argument recognizes possible exceptions to the claim. The model must be modified as follows:


Evidence
(qualifier)
Claim
"clouds are thick and low"
"wind is from the east"
"barometric pressure is going down"
"probably"
"it is going to rain today"
Reservation
"Unless it snows"
Warrant
Since precipitation occurs when clouds are thick, winds come from the east, and the barometric pressure declines
Support
Dr. X. Y. Zee said some form of precipitation will probably occur when the barometric pressure drops and my grandfather said when the wind is from the east it is a sure sign of rain

The complete argument would be:

> The clouds are thick and low today. The wind is from the east, and the barometric pressure is going down. Precipitation occurs when those conditions are present. Dr. X. Y. Zee from the University said that precipitation will probably occur when the barometric pressure drops. I can remember, too, that my grandfather always said that an east wind was a sign of rain. Unless it snows, I believe it is probably going to rain today.

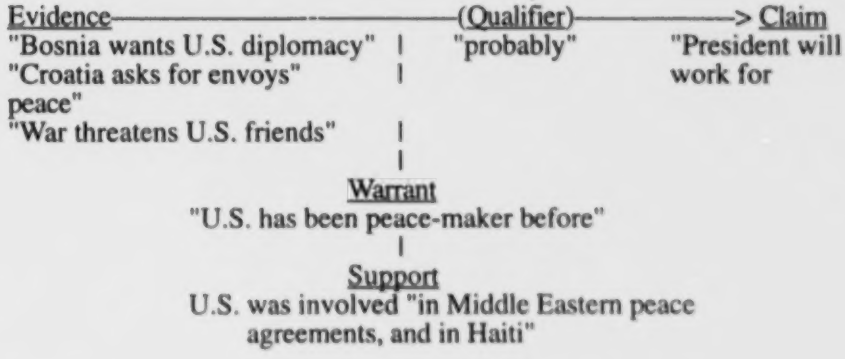
Now as you examine the entire argument, you can see its strengths and weaknesses. Maybe more evidence needs to be added. Perhaps the warrant is not completely supplied and more support is needed. Maybe you can think of more reservations. Perhaps the reservations are strong enough to convince you there is little likelihood that it will rain. By weighing one side against the other, you should be able to explain the strengths and weaknesses of an argument. This model helps you to show why a claim should be accepted, modified, or rejected.

Not all arguments have all elements of the complete argument. Some do not include the support of the warrant; some do not include the warrant; some ignore the qualifier and reservation. Many arguments consist of evidence and claim only.

Generally, a good, logically tight argument should include evidence, claim, warrant (unless clearly understood by all), and the qualifiers and reservations if needed.

Another fictitious illustration might be helpful:

> According to the U.S. Secretary of State, the Bosnians desire American diplomacy in the resolution of the Balkan conflict. The President of Croatia has asked the United States to continue sending envoys to all warring parties in the Balkans. The U.S. President believes that continued war in the Balkans could threaten other Balkan countries which are friendly toward the United States. Since the United States has been the peacemaker before in world crises (e.g., the Middle East, Haiti), the U.S. President will probably pursue peace missions in the Balkans.



Comments:

- Many arguments include only the evidence and the claim. Speakers often assume the warrant is known and accepted by the audience. Parts of arguments are frequently missing.

- The argument above does not include some of the reasoning; e.g., "the U.S. President will continue U.S. policy on the basis of a consistent foreign relations policy, therefore. . . ."

- The argument can be tested by:

  √ Testing the evidence.

  √ Testing or refuting the warrant and its support.

- √ Testing the extent to which the qualifier and reservation are correct or likely.
- √ Testing the logical relationships of the evidence, warrant, and claim.

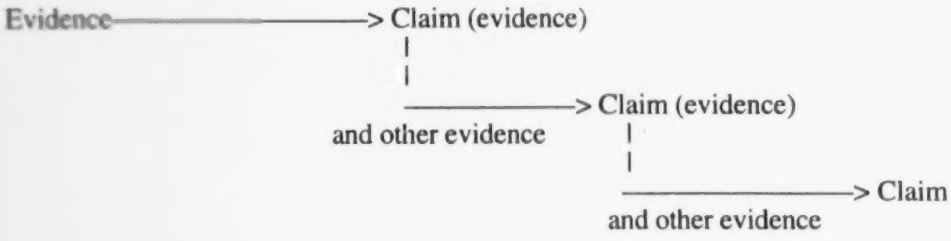
- The illustration above fits one argument, but a speech or essay usually includes more than one argument. Sometimes the arguments are parallel while others are in series, as the next section explains.

Arrangement of Arguments

Arguments usually are arranged in one of two ways: series or parallel.

Series Arrangement

Series arrangements are the type in which one argument is built on another. In a series arrangement, the claim of one argument (plus any additional arguments) can become the evidence or data of the next argument. The following diagram shows how the argument can be laid out.



- Example of Series Arrangement

We can build on the argument we used earlier to show how a series arrangement works:

According to the U.S. Secretary of State, the Bosnians desire American diplomacy in the resolution of the Balkan conflict. The president of Croatia has asked the United States to continue sending envoys to all warring parties in the Balkans. The President believes that continued war in the Balkans could threaten other Balkan countries which

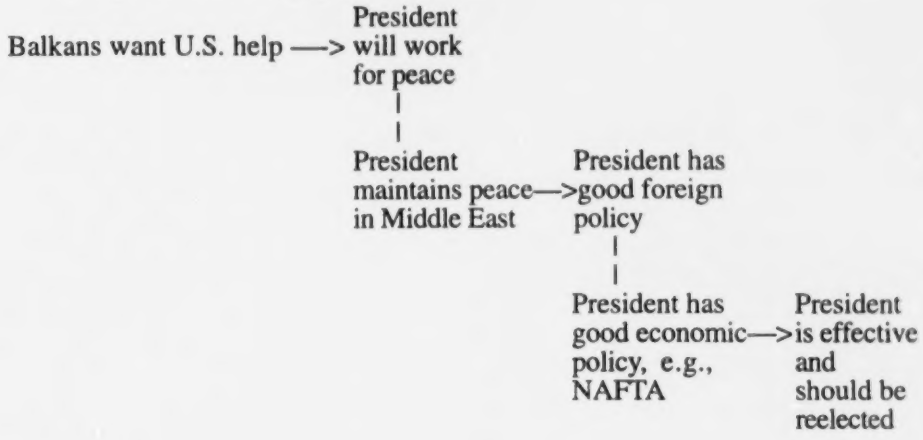
are friendly toward the United States. Since the United States has been the peacemaker before in world crises (e.g., the Middle East, Haiti), the President will probably pursue peace missions in the Balkans.

The President stopped Iraq's threat to reinvade Kuwait and maintains a strong U.S. military presence in the Arabian Gulf. This demonstration of his efforts to maintain peace throughout the Middle East shows that he is a world leader.

The President has also secured the North American Free Trade Agreement which has improved the economic situation in the United States as well as in Mexico and Canada. Bipartisan support for this agreement shows that he has a good economic policy.

These are reasons why the President should be reelected.

The argument can be diagramed as follows:


Balkans want U.S. help —> President will work for peace
President maintains peace in Middle East
—> President has good foreign policy
President has good economic policy, e.g., NAFTA
—> President is effective and should be reelected

Parallel Arrangement

Parallel arrangements are set side-by-side so the speaker might have three or four arguments all supporting one position. In a parallel arrangement a general claim is supported by individual, independent arguments:

1. Evidence————————> Claim
2. Evidence————————> Claim
3. Evidence————————> Claim

The parallel arrangement has several independent arguments all of which support a more general claim. The claim of each argument supports the general

claim. Notice in the following example that the arguments are nearly the same as those in the series illustration. The major difference is the arrangement of the arguments. Consider the following example.

> Since the President's election to office, you witnessed the return of stability to Haiti. You also saw his firm action to ensure peace in the Middle East. He avoided getting U.S. troops involved in a ground war in the Balkans. These events show that he has good foreign policy.
>
> The President has also secured the North American Free Trade Agreement which has improved the economic situation in the United States as well as in Mexico and Canada. Bipartisan support for this agreement shows that he has good economic policy. Consequently, U.S. exports have increased.
>
> The tough new crime measures sponsored by the President indicate his commitment to law enforcement agencies throughout the country. He is also working hard to help fix the medical care problems in our country. He has made significant attempts to reduce the deficit over the next ten years.
>
> Ladies and gentlemen, I believe the President should be reelected because he has a good foreign policy, a good economic policy, and a good domestic policy.

This argument can be charted as follows:

The President should be supported for reelection because:

1.	Stability in Haiti Middle East peace Stayed out of Balkans	——————>	President has good foreign policy
2.	Secured NAFTA agreement Bipartisan support for NAFTA Exports increased	——————>	President has good economic policy
3.	Crime bill passed Working on Medical Care Reducing deficit	---------->	President has good domestic policy

Each type of arrangement of arguments has its strengths and weaknesses. The series arrangement, if done well, has a certain logical appeal. As we appreciate

a finely tuned automobile or a well-crafted china cabinet, so too, a well-constructed logical argument has appeal. However, if you can refute one argument in the series, often the entire set appears to fail. The parallel arrangement will not fail if one argument fails, because each stands on its own. On the other hand, the parallel arrangement *can* easily become a mixture of unrelated arguments and *can* be interpreted as a complete failure if some of the arguments are weak. Whether speakers use series or parallel arrangements, they should use good evidence, logical arguments, and claims of value for the speaker and the listener.

Tests of Reasoning

Reasoning by Example

When we reason by example, we use one or more examples that form the basis for a generalization or conclusion. This is a form of inductive reasoning. Each example is evidence from which you make a claim. A speaker might want to claim that American welfare policy does little to improve the position of the poor, as does the following argument.

Evidence ——————————————> Claim

Examples:

1. 60 % of welfare recipients in Chicago remain on welfare for many years.
2. Only basic needs are supplied; enough funds are not provided for education.
3. Day care is not provided and thus many poor cannot work outside the home.

American welfare policy does not help the poor to get off welfare and into the job market.

Reasoning by example can be tested in several ways:

√ Are the examples typical or representative of others, or are they exceptions to the rule?

√ Are the examples logically related to the claim, or do they allow other claims? Notice in the illustration above that the claim does include more than the examples support. The claim indicates that American

welfare policy should be designed to help the poor get jobs. Yet, this is not supported. Many poor may not be able to work.

√ Are there other examples that strongly support a position contrary to or different from the claim? It is possible that the government provides job training rather than funds for education and thus does improve the position of the poor.

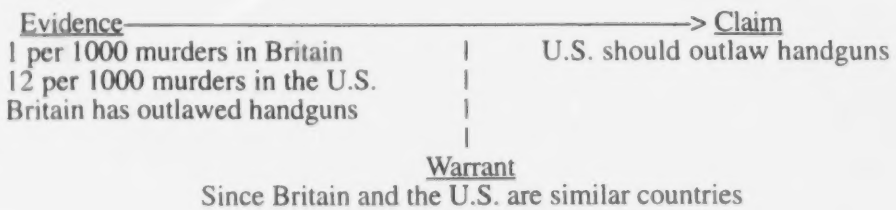
√ Are the examples or counter-examples significant? In the argument above, a counter-example such as job training for the poor would be significant if the amount of money spent on it was equal to the amount spent for food.

√ Are there enough examples?

Reasoning by Analogy

Reasoning by analogy involves comparing two similar cases and inferring that what is true in one case is true in the other. This is a form of inductive reasoning. The two cases must be of the same classification or identity. For example, two cities can be used, or two countries, two companies, two families. To make a literal comparison between your family and the nation of Argentina would be improper because it compares two entities from different classifications .

This form of reasoning has been used for many different arguments such as nationalized medical programs and gun control. In the gun control argument, some proponents of gun control might argue: "The number of murders committed with handguns in Britain is 1 per 1000 population. The number in the U.S. is 12 per 1000. This difference is a significant reduction. Britain has gun control—no one is permitted to own a handgun. The U.S. should outlaw handguns also." (The numbers are fictitious.)


Evidence
Claim
1 per 1000 murders in Britain
12 per 1000 murders in the U.S.
Britain has outlawed handguns
U.S. should outlaw handguns
Warrant
Since Britain and the U.S. are similar countries

Sometimes speakers will use figurative analogies to add persuasive appeal to their speeches. For example, one might compare a friendship to a living plant and maintain that just as a living plant needs nourishment and sunlight, so a friendship must be nourished by good communication. Figurative analogies often have persuasive appeal, but they to not provide any evidence or logical argumentation.

Reasoning by analogy can be tested in several ways.

- √ You can test the analogy with a different analogy that has the same design. For example, you could argue that Britain has fewer traffic fatalities than the U.S. (Britain: 1 per 1000. U.S.: 12 per 1000). (Again the numbers are fictitious.) The British drive on the left side of the road. Therefore, Americans should drive on the left side of the road. If the second analogy is logical or does not demonstrate errors in reasoning, then the first analogy *might* be correct.

- √ Ask whether the two cases are truly of the same classification—are Britain and the U.S. similar nations?

- √ Are the differences significant for the argument? The cultural and historical differences between Britain and the U.S. might be very significant for the gun control argument.

- √ Are there other analogies that support the argument or is it an exception? For example, can one use the same gun control argument using other countries such as Canada, Japan, and West Germany, or is Britain an exception because the analogy fails with other countries? You could argue that if the analogy failed when comparing Canada and the U.S., which are more similar, then the analogy with Britain is an exception and not the rule.

Cause/Effect Reasoning

The basic design of the argument is to show logical relationships between cause and effect. You can know what the cause is and try to show the resulting effect. Or you can know the effect and try to show the cause. Both relationships are illustrated below.

1. Cause to effect----------cause is known
   The oil embargo (known cause) resulted in
   high inflation and high interest rates (effect).

2. Effect to cause----------effect is known
   The economic recession of the early 1980's (known effect)
   was caused by high interest rates (cause).

Cause/effect reasoning places several demands upon the user. The arguments require careful word choice so listeners can interpret the argument correctly. Any misunderstanding can lead to collapse of the argument. The listener must be particularly careful to understand the argument correctly. While all speeches and all reasoning should receive such close attention, the close logical ties in cause/effect arguments demand special effort.

Cause/effect reasoning should meet the following tests:

√ Is the proposed cause the only cause possible, or are other explanations possible?
In illustration number 2 above, the speaker maintains that the cause of the recession was high interest rates. However, other causes could also be considered; e.g., excessive national debt, international inflation, or high oil prices.

√ Is the cause sufficient or strong enough to produce the effect?
Is the cause of high interest rates strong enough to produce recession, or must other important factors be present to produce recession?

√ Are the cause and effect directly related?
Is there a logically correct economic relationship between high interest rates and economic recession? Is the relationship known and accepted by economists? While the answer might seem obvious here, you should consider the importance of this test when you hear talk radio hosts blame government conspiracies for many national problems.

- √ Are other effects equally possible?
  In illustration number 1 above, the argument maintains that the oil embargo resulted in high inflation. Yet, you could also argue that the oil embargo caused energy conservation, which caused less money to be spent on oil, which helped the U.S. balance of payments, which made the dollar stronger, which would mean less money spent on foreign goods, which would help eliminate inflation. While each step would need evidence, the example demonstrates that a contradictory effect could be possible. (Incidentally, notice that the last argument is in a series arrangement.)

Fallacies or Incorrect Reasoning

Many errors are possible in the reasoning speakers and listeners use. However, some errors are so common that they are classified and given names. In this section, we will explain some of the common fallacies in argument and reasoning. A knowledge of the common fallacies will help speakers and listeners to more quickly evaluate their own reasoning and the reasoning of others.

post hoc

The term "post hoc" is a shortened version of the Latin phrase—"post hoc, ergo propter hoc," which means "after this, therefore because of this." This fallacy argues that event B was caused by event A because event B followed event A. For example, a native died because the voodoo witch pushed a pin through the heart of the doll. While this argument might seem ridiculous or absurd to you, a similar one has been heard in America: "Every American President elected at twenty year intervals since 1840 has died in office (Harrison, Lincoln, Garfield, McKinley, Harding, Roosevelt, Kennedy)." However, their election in those years was hardly the cause of their death. Fortunately, President Reagan survived his two terms in the 1980s so the argument will no longer be used.

Appeal to Ignorance (argumentum ad ignorantium)

Those who use this fallacy reject an argument or the evidence for a position because it is not known by the speaker or audience. They assume, therefore, that it does not exist. People have used this fallacy to deny a speech about space

exploration, because it is impossible to travel in space. In fact, this position was so strong that one of the authors of this text has heard people declare that all the radio and television news about rockets and men landing on the moon were propaganda movies produced by the government and its military forces. Essentially, users of this fallacy maintain that since they do not know about it or cannot logically understand it, therefore it does not exist.

Personal Attack (argumentum ad hominem)

Sometimes it is difficult to attack an argument. When faced with a difficult argument, some people resort to attacking the speaker instead. Personal character or behavior are used to divert attention away from the argument. The purpose is to discredit the person so the listener will discredit the argument. Using this fallacy is an unethical way of avoiding one's responsibility to test and refute arguments.

Popular Appeals (argumentum ad populum)

This fallacy seeks to gain popular support for a position or appeal rather than to rely on logical argumentation with evidence. It often takes one of a couple of forms.

The first form this fallacy takes is to appeal to ordinary persons. Politicians, for example, frequently use this in their campaigns. They pretend they are just like the average voter rather than a Washington insider. They hope people will want to vote for someone who is like them and understands their concerns. Notice how often politicians' appeals are based on "I am a common man like you"-- *ad populum*. This type of appeal is commonly called the *plain folks* technique.

A second form of this fallacy is to appeal to the audience to accept the persuader's position because many other people do. This is called the *bandwagon* technique. Instead of offering good evidence, the speaker wants people to accept an idea or product because supposedly many other people accept it.

False Dilemma

A true dilemma is an argument that shows that the opponent or the audience has one of two choices. Often both of these choices are undesirable options that logically result from a particular position. A true dilemma is a strong argument.

The false dilemma involves the same undesirable choices. However, the

speaker fails to recognize that other options are possible. For example, one might argue that surplus grain should be destroyed because: one, if we *give* it to the poor countries, we will destroy their own farming and economy; or two, if we *sell* the grain to them, they will not be able to afford it *and* the investments needed to improve their own farming. This false dilemma ignores the option of selling the grain at a lower, affordable price that can be supplemented with government loans.

Listeners should always ask if the two options offered by the speaker are the only two options possible or if indeed there might be three or more options. They should also try to determine if the speaker has represented the two options fairly.

Begging the Question

This common fallacy relies upon the acceptance of evidence that is not given when it should have been. The speaker assumes that the audience will supply its own evidence or simply accept the speaker's assumptions. One way to remember this fallacy is to think of the question left begging for evidence to support it.

One form of begging the question is found in many series of rhetorical questions (discussed in the chapter on Organization). For example, a speaker might begin a speech with the following: "Do you know how many whales are nearly extinct? Do you know how many are killed each year just for their blubber? Do you know that the U.S. government does not enforce its whaling laws? I am going to persuade you to write your representatives and ask them to pass the necessary laws to protect whales." The speaker assumes that if you answer the questions the way he or she implies, then he or she does not have to prove that the continued existence of whales is, indeed, threatened for poor reasons. The claims of the speaker are left begging for evidence.

Another form of begging the question is circular argumentation. This form of argument uses an unsupported assertion to prove another unsupported assertion. For example, "teenage drinking of alcohol should be illegal because it is bad for them. It is bad because it is illegal." Or, "leaders in American society have power. They have power because they are leaders."

Speakers and listeners should become familiar with fallacies and avoid them. A good speech will include only good reasoning supported by solid evidence. Speakers have an ethical obligation to provide necessary evidence. Listeners need to test arguments carefully before accepting them and should encourage good reasoning by speakers.

Review Questions for Chapter 12

1. Why should speakers know good reasoning and argumentation?
2. Why should audiences know good reasoning and argumentation?
3. Define inductive and deductive reasoning.
4. Identify and describe each of the parts of the Toulmin model of argument.
5. Define: reasoning by example, reasoning by analogy.
6. How can you test reasoning by example?
7. How can you test reasoning by analogy?
8. What are the tests for cause-effect reasoning?
9. Identify and describe each of the fallacies discussed in the text.
10. A statement that contains only a claim is called an assertion. It is not an argument. Why not?
11. What are the different ways that one can test arguments?

Exercises in Reasoning

A. Analyze the following arguments using the Toulmin model. Be able to identify each part of the argument.

1. According to the January 1, 1993 *Time* magazine, General George Howell said that Russians have 250 ICBMs left. Since ICBMs represent a threat to the United States, our government probably should enforce the latest nuclear arms treat.

2. It is most likely going to freeze tonight. KDCR predicted that the temperature would drop to 28 degrees by midnight. According to the latest *Farmer's Almanac*, the temperature for the next week will be about 20 degrees below normal. This morning, KSFY-TV said that the normal low for tonight is 45 degrees. *The All-weather Encyclopedia* states that temperatures below 32 degrees at this elevation will result in frost. Unless we have a strong south wind tonight, there is a 90% chance it will freeze.

3. Western College must reduce its tuition costs. Last year 25 students did not return to Western the second semester because they could not afford the tuition.

4. In the book of Joshua, Achan, his wife, his sons and daughters, his animals, and his material belongings were stoned to death and then burned because he had taken some of the dedicated plunder from Jericho. The Bible clearly maintains that those who violate the Ten Commandments must be punished. Therefore, the state of Iowa should pass a law which institutes capital punishment for murder and grand theft. Biblical scholar Rev. John Knowtal said that the historical accounts given in the Old Testament clearly show that capital punishment was considered just punishment.

B. Evaluate the following arguments. Determine if the arguments contain fallacies. If they do, be able to identify the fallacy. Be prepared to discuss your evaluation in class.

1. There is enough food in the world to feed everyone. The only problem is money. If you have enough money, you can buy food and not starve. What we need is to get other countries industrialized so that the poor can work to earn money for food.

2. The murder of Archduke Ferdinand at Sarajevo caused World War I.

3. Nothing is better than good health. Anything is better than nothing. Therefore, anything is better than good health.

4. Thousands of successful business leaders read the *Wall Street Journal* every day. If you want to be successful, you should read the *Journal* also.

5. The FBI director's denial about involvement in the investigation of militia groups is hardly credible since it is obvious that he is not telling the truth.

Chapter Thirteen
Nonverbal Communication

Although words are central in public address, nonverbal communication contributes much to the total meaning of a speech. Just how much the nonverbal elements contribute to meaning cannot be measured, but we do know that nonverbal is a significant part of all communication. The tone of voice your father used told you whether he was angry or happy. A glint in a friend's eye tells you she is about to tell a joke. A policeman's motion guides what direction your are to turn. The study of nonverbal communication includes many different areas, such as kinesics or the movement of the body, proxemics or the distance between communicators, eye movement, facial expression, and tone of voice.

While public address uses many elements of nonverbal communication, we lack space to deal with each element sufficiently here. We will focus on those elements most essential to public address: gestures, movement, eye contact, and facial expression. In the following chapter we will focus on voice.

Public address is a total communication process and cannot be limited only to the words spoken. A good public address will utilize the total process to gain a correct match of meanings between the speaker and the audience. Good, clear nonverbal communication properly combined with verbal communication will demonstrate respect for and honesty with the audience.

Nonverbal communication in a public address has three purposes: to enhance the verbal, to assist the verbal for complete meaning, and to communicate its own message.

Perspective for Nonverbal Communication in Public Address

Before explaining the use of the nonverbal communication in public address, we must discuss a common, faulty perspective. This is the naturalistic perspective. Unfortunately, many students of public address use this perspective as an excuse for not being concerned with gestures, posture, and movement.

According to this perspective, gestures must be natural and occur automatically from an inner drive during the speech. Supposedly, gestures should not be planned in advance. They assume that a planned movement feels awkward and looks mechanical. If a movement does not feel natural, then the speaker should not use it. Therefore, according to this perspective, gestures do not need

planning or practice.

However, the arguments and the perspective are faulty. First, the naturalistic perspective maintains that planned and practiced gestures will appear mechanical. While public address is obviously not drama, one should recognize that much of film and stage is based upon planned and practiced movements and facial expressions that do not appear mechanical. As in drama, gestures and other movements can be practiced to meet characteristics of good movement. Many fine public speakers practice the gestures and movements as well as the rest of the speech. Ample evidence is available to disprove the argument.

Second, the naturalistic perspective maintains that the natural gesture or movement is best for communicating. Not all natural movements are best. Think, for example, about a person who has not learned to swim and is thrown into the water. This person will certainly move, but those natural movements may not prevent drowning. In communication, one has only to observe the natural gestures of conversation and of some public speakers to recognize that they are often vague and repetitious. Such movements communicate ambiguity, nervousness, or just movement and are counter-productive. A good speech is unified throughout. It does not communicate one meaning with words and a different meaning nonverbally. Such incongruity can engender a completely different meaning than intended by the speaker.

Third, the naturalistic perspective fails to recognize the needs of the beginning speaker. Due to speech anxiety or stage fright, many speakers need to push themselves if improvement is to develop, if speech anxiety is to be controlled, and if confidence is to increase. The naturalistic perspective allows mediocrity to remain mediocrity, but Christian public address students are called to improve their talents and abilities and to strive for excellence.

Characteristics of Good Nonverbal Communication

Good movement and expression have several characteristics. First, they have proper or correct timing. The timing of the movement fits the verbal. To deliver a gesture too soon or too late calls attention to the gesture and therefore detracts from the desired meaning. Second, nonverbal movements are easily visible. The entire audience should see the gesture or movement. Avoid hiding the gesture from some of the audience because the gesture is too small or because it is behind the lectern. Third, nonverbal movements have the same meaning to the speaker and to all members of the audience. Avoid gestures or movements that calls attention to itself.

Similarly, avoid repeating the same gesture or movement for it will begin to communicate repetition or nervousness. Fourth, nonverbal communication must be morally acceptable. Many gestures are questionable due to the offensiveness of the meaning or because the level of taste and decorum is undesirable. Avoid them. Fifth, nonverbal communication fits the direction of the whole speech. While many gestures might be possible, the speaker selects those that fit the tone of the speech. To use all possible gestures when the speaker wishes to establish the sense of quiet control would cause undesirable humor, incongruity, or confusion.

Below you will find a portion of a speech by William Jennings Bryan entitled "Cross of Gold." Read through the entire selection and then mark each place that a gesture or movement is possible. Compare your marks with one or more classmates, and discuss the type of gestures possible and appropriate. After your discussion, read the material that follows.

> When you come before us and tell us that we are about to disturb your business interests, we reply that you have disturbed our business interests by your course. We say to you that you have made the definition of a business man too limited in its application. The man who is employed for wages is as much a business man as his employer; the attorney in a country town is as much a business man as the corporation counsel in a great metropolis; the merchant at the crossroads store is as much a business man as the merchant in New York; the farmer who goes forth in the morning and toils all day, who begins in the spring and toils all summer, and who by application of brain and muscle to the natural resources of the country creates wealth, is as much a business man as the man who goes upon the board of trade and bets upon the price of grain; the miners who go down a thousand feet in the earth, or climb two thousand feet upon the cliffs, and bring forth from their hiding-places the precious metals to be poured into the channels of trade, are as much business men as the few financial magnates who, in a back room, corner the money of the world. We come to speak for this broader class of business men.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> The pioneers away out there, who rear their children near to Nature's heart, where they can mingle their voices with the voices of the birds—out there where they have erected schoolhouses for the education of their young, churches where they praise their Creator, and cemeteries where rest the ashes of their dead—these people, we say, are as deserving of the consideration of our party as any people in this country. It is for these that

we speak.

If you have marked all possible gestures in the above part of Bryan's speech, the first two lines would look like this:

√ √ √ √ √ √
When you come before us and tell us that we are about to disturb your
√ √ √ √ √
business interests we reply that you have disturbed our business interests
√ √
by your course.

Obviously many gestures are possible, and obviously the speaker cannot use all those possible. The speech would be ludicrous. The speaker must select from all possible gestures. The basis for the selection should be:

√ Select gestures that assist the verbal to engender correct meanings.

√ Then select those gestures, facial expressions, and movements that enhance or dress up the total meaning of the speech. For example, a complete reading of the quotation indicates that Bryan is trying to bring two different groups together, so one would select gestures that show two different sides which come together toward the end. Similarly, Bryan is trying to bring the parties together by demonstrating the difficulties or plight of one group to arouse sympathy, so some gestures could be used to demonstrate that plight.

√ Nonverbal communication should demonstrate enthusiasm. The audience expects to see enthusiasm. If it is lacking, their attention soon lags.

Common problems of beginning speakers include facial expressions of fear, consternation, or nervousness; no gestures or gestures that are vague, general, or repetitious; no body movement except leaning on the lectern and shifting from one foot to the other; and a rather soft and expressionless tone of voice. Most of these problems indicate a lack of experience, a lack of practice, or anxiety about public speaking.

One of the best solutions to all of these problems is good preparation. If you

select a topic of value for you and your audience and if you are convinced that you can help your audience, you are a long way toward good nonverbal communication. Next, you need to practice the speech often, but that practice must be of the right kind. Good or correct practice is *not* lying on your bed while reading through the speech several times. Good practice is *not* sitting in the back corner of the library while quietly muttering your main points. Good preparation include practicing the nonverbal and then practicing the nonverbal with the verbal. Good practice includes standing before a full-length mirror or before some friends and actually giving the speech.

Another way to help alleviate the impact of nervousness is to push yourself to speak often. The more you speak, the more confident you become. Increased confidence leads to better nonverbal communication because you are not inhibited.

To improve facial expression, pause, relax, and smile before starting. During the speech, look directly at the eyes of your audience and respond to their facial expressions. For example, if your listeners look like they do not understand, respond with a look of "O.K., I need to explain that better," and clarify your point. The audience needs to complete its task of listening and responding well. They need to help the speaker.

To improve your posture, avoid holding the lectern and step back a little. This will also help you avoid shifting from one foot to the other. Try setting your feet farther apart or one foot behind the other and at a slight angle to it. Push yourself to move by starting the speech to the side of the lectern. You will have a natural tendency to move behind it later.

To improve the tone of voice, select the most important sentences and words and practice emphasizing. Then check the type of emotion that you wish to convey and practice showing that emotion in your voice. Facial expressions can be exaggerated to give the impact you desire.

To improve gestures, remember the characteristics of good nonverbal communication and use the techniques you used above with the Bryan speech.

A more complete procedure for improving the nonverbal is given below. Remember that public speaking is a total communication process. All parts must work together to engender the correct meaning. All parts must fit well to demonstrate respect for your audience and to praise your Creator.

Procedure for Nonverbal Communication

We recommend the following procedure for improvement of gestures and movement in speeches:

1. Observe facial expressions, body movement, gestures, and tone of voice of others. Watch and listen to the variety and the effect each has on the meaning communicated.

2. Remember that movement is an important part of the delivery of a speech. Remind yourself to develop that part of delivery as well as the other parts, such as voice.

3. Write or outline your speech with the desired meaning in mind and ask yourself what that meaning demands of you in posture, gestures, and tone of voice.

4. Mark your manuscript for places where you will include gestures and movement, and indicate the type of gesture or movement needed at each point.

5. Practice each gesture or movement individually.

6. Practice the entire speech including the gesture or movement.

7. When you present the speech, permit the movement to develop. Enough practice will result in the movement during the presentation of the speech without reminders for yourself.

8. Maintain your level of enthusiasm. It is the nonverbal elements that will most clearly show your interest in the audience and in your subject.

One caution is necessary. Do not confine your thinking to hand gestures only. While the hand gesture is a good place to start, also work on total movement, tone of voice, facial expression, and other nonverbal elements. Think creatively about the variety of expressions you can use. An exercise at the end of this chapter will help you.

Review Questions for Chapter 13

1. Why should a good public address include gestures?
2. What are the purposes of the nonverbal elements in public address?
3. What is the naturalistic perspective of nonverbal in public address? Why is that perspective faulty?
4. Describe the procedure you should use to improve gestures?
5. What are the characteristics of good gestures?
6. How should you decide when to gesture and how to gesture?

Exercises

To appreciate the variety of gestures available to you, find a quiet place by yourself and try to develop gestures to fit the following. Try the gesture in several different ways to fit different meanings. A second option is to do the exercise with other class members in the form of charades. You select and perform a gesture with appropriate posture, movement, and facial expression after which the observers supply a full description of meaning and emotion. Each member takes a turn.

1. "Come here" with one finger, one hand, both hands, hand and arm.
2. "Go" with one finger, one hand, both hands, hand and arm.
3. "Sit down" with one hand, both hands, hands and arms.
4. "He (or she) left" with one hand, both hands, hands and arms.
   Try other messages. Try also different shapes, directions, numbers, sizes.

Chapter Fourteen
Voice

The human voice is truly an amazing and efficient creation. We use its mechanisms (lungs, teeth, tongue) for many purposes—to breathe, to eat, to smell, to taste, to speak. However, the focus of this chapter will be on the use of the various mechanisms to produce sound and on how that sound is formed into communication.

Each person has a unique voice by which he or she can be identified. Each person has a unique combination of pitch, intensity, rate, vibrato, and inflection which, combined with articulation and resonance, makes that voice personal and identifiable.

The voice is judged to be normal or acceptable if it fits within a range that is acceptable by society. If one or more characteristics go beyond that range, then that voice is identified as a problem, or the speaker is judged by society as not normal.

Characteristics

• *Pitch*

Sound is made by a vibrating body which causes the air around that body to develop waves at the rate that the vibrating body is vibrating. Pitch refers to the number of times that the vocal folds or bands vibrate per second. The string of a guitar vibrates back and forth a particular number of times per second (cps or cycles per second) to produce a "C" or "D" note. The voice operates in the same way. If you recall your childhood play with strings or rubber bands, you know that certain rules or laws exist. Strings that are longer and/or thicker vibrate more slowly, resulting in a lower pitch. Strings that are shorter and/or thinner vibrate more quickly, resulting in a higher pitch. Speakers can change the pitch of their voices by using muscles to pull on the vocal folds. Pulling them to become longer and thinner raises the pitch, and relaxing the muscles lowers the pitch.

The human voice also has a habitual pitch and an optimum pitch. The habitual pitch is that pitch which is used most or the pitch that you always return to after a change. The optimum pitch is the pitch that is best for the voice because it avoids strain.

Society identifies a range of acceptance for pitch to fit age, sex, emotional situation, and region of the country. A child has a higher pitch than an adult and a woman has a higher pitch than a man.

For public speakers, the pitch should fit in the normal range. They should use a level that does not cause strain on the voice and should use a variety of pitch changes to communicate well and to maintain interest.

• *Intensity*

Intensity is the volume of the voice. As with pitch, society also sets a range for the normal intensity. The volume must fit the acceptable range for a given situation. We do not expect cheerleaders at a basketball game to whisper the cheers, nor do we accept loud talk at a funeral. Public speakers should use an intensity that does not strain the voice, which is loud enough to maintain audience interest, and which is not so loud that it irritates the audience.

• *Rate*

Speakers also have particular rates or speeds at which they speak. Some speak slowly, while others speak more rapidly. Rate often depends upon one's family setting, the region of the country, one's thought process, urgency, and personality. Some people speak rapidly and continually. Others are more deliberate and methodical in personality and speak more slowly. People from some areas of southern United States tend to speak more slowly than do the people of Chicago. However, speed is expected when an emergency exists. "Oh, Dad --- watch --- out --- for --- the --- car --- on --- the --- right," is deliberate communication, but it is also likely to result in an accident.

Public speakers need a rate that maintains good understanding and has enough variety to avoid monotony. They should also adjust their rate for the size of the audience. Large audiences will probably need a slightly slower rate.

• *Vibrato*

Most people are aware of the vibrato in singers when the pitch is changed rapidly like a tremor or "shake" in the voice of a very nervous speaker. However, few realize that the normal, pleasant voice has a small amount of vibrato. Faulty vibrato calls attention to itself or distracts because it is harsh (no vibrato) or it rattles

or it shakes or quivers (too much vibrato). Too much nervousness can produce too much vibrato. Speakers should maintain normal vibrato by thorough preparation, by avoiding a forced voice, and by relaxing the muscles of the chest and throat.

Process

The process of producing speech involves five integrated but different activities: respiration, phonation, resonance, articulation, and integration. Each activity will be defined and described below, and common problems and remedies will be discussed.

• *Respiration*

Respiration is the inhalation and exhalation of air. To inhale, the air pressure must be decreased in the person's lungs so air will rush in from the outside where the pressure is higher. To exhale, the pressure must be made higher in the lungs by the chest cavity or thorax decreasing in size. The size of the thorax is changed for inhaling and exhaling by muscles which pull the ribs up and out and/or pull the diaphragm down. The diaphragm is a large, dome-shaped membrane between the thorax and the abdomen.

A rather common problem for public speakers is shortness of breath or high-chest breathing. The problem is usually caused by nervousness at the beginning resulting in the wrong method for breathing. Because they are nervous, their abdominal or stomach muscles are not used, and they rely on pulling their ribs up and out for breathing. The muscles for moving the ribs are short and have less control. The result is less air and less control for the release of the air pressure, so speakers run out of air too soon. They then speak in short phrases and inhale between them. Such action usually increases nervousness.

To remedy the problem of running out of air, you can do the following:

√ Pause before starting the speech. Relax and set your notes in order. Put all visual aids in order. Set your feet. Smile and begin.

√ During the pause before the speech inhale slowly and deeply. Push down against your belt or waist.

√ Think "deep," or remind yourself to use your abdominal muscles.

√ Begin with good volume and projection, and then let up a little. Volume calls for pressure of the abdominal muscles.

√ Maintain good posture. To lean or stoop restricts the abdomen and invites high-chest breathing.

• *Phonation*

Phonation is the development of sound by the vibration of the vocal folds caused by air passing between the approximated vocal folds. When a speaker exhales, the air from the lungs travels up the trachea to the larynx, which holds the vocal folds. The muscles in the larynx contract or pull so that the vocal folds come together. When the air passes between the vocal folds, it causes them to vibrate, and those vibrations are carried by the air up into the pharynx (or throat behind the mouth and nose). The vibrations in the air are called sound. The process is similar to pulling on the neck of a balloon so the two sides come together, and the escaping air causes the sides to vibrate to produce a sound.

Speakers can encounter several problems in this part of the speech process. These problems are improper pitch, lack of variation in pitch, rattling, or loss of voice. The remedies will, of course, depend upon the problem.

Improper pitch, such as speaking too high, can be corrected by relaxing the neck and controlling speech anxiety. To relax the neck, roll the head about in a circular motion or gently slide the larynx from side to side. Yawning will also help. These exercises assume that the pitch problem occurs only during a public address. If the pitch problem is always present, then speech therapy is probably needed.

Some pitch problems and quality problems are due to a dry larynx or a congested larynx. If your mouth is dry, drink water and allow a small amount to rest on the tongue, while you inhale slowly. Avoid drinking milk, soda, or juices before a speech because they usually cause too much mucous. For a congested larynx a few good coughs might help.

Finally, most speakers do not encounter loss of voice. Plenty of public speaking practice alleviates anxiety about loss of voice. Concentration on the subject of the speech (rather than the speaker), good posture (keep the head up), and a relaxed, moist larynx help the speech flow smoothly.

• *Resonance*

Resonance is the amplification of overtones. Many have had some experience with overtones by singing in a confined area such as a shower or by observing the motion of a long wire when it is plucked. Imagine a string from a piano or guitar. When the string is hit or plucked, it vibrates back and forth as a whole unit to give a sound that is called the fundamental. But the string also vibrates in parts. Each half vibrates also, but because it is one-half the length, it vibrates twice as fast as the whole. The sound is not as loud as the fundamental. This sound is called an overtone. Each quarter of the string vibrates also, and this is another overtone which is higher in pitch.

Like the string, the speaker's vocal folds also produce overtones. Now, imagine a shower stall. When someone sings in a shower, the sound waves bounce off the walls. The waves from one wall begin to match the waves off the other wall. Such action increases the intensity of the sound waves. If those sound waves match on the overtones, then those waves are strengthened and the quality of the total sound improves. The resonators of the human body act like the shower stall walls to bounce the sound and to amplify the overtones. The cavities of the human body that resonate sound (hence resonators) are the sinus cavities, the nasal cavity, the oral cavity, the pharynx, and the thorax. Proper use of resonators gives the voice its quality.

The deterioration of quality in a speaker's voice is usually due to an improper use of the resonators, failure to use resonators appropriately, or an obstruction in resonators. A congested nasal cavity is noticeable when the speaker suffers from the common cold.

Good quality is more pleasing and assists the communication. Clear resonators help project the voice to the audience.

Speakers should keep all resonators clear and pliable, which means:

√ Keep out congestion, if possible, of sinuses, nose, throat, and chest.

√ Avoid using gum or lozenges.

√ Maintain good posture so the thorax and pharynx are as large as possible.

√ Yawn and move the larynx and jaw about so they are relaxed.

√ Open the mouth and avoid speaking "through your teeth."

√ Keep the walls of the pharynx moist. Have a drink of water. Avoid milk, juices, and soda.

• *Articulation*

At this point in the process of speech, the speaker now has air from the lungs with or without sound from the larynx traveling through the pharynx, oral and nasal cavities. Now the speaker must take these basics and make intelligible sounds with enough variation to develop the consonants and vowels. Articulation is the manipulation of the voiced and voiceless air stream by the articulators. The articulators are the teeth, tongue, lips, palate (hard portion of the roof of the mouth), and the velum (soft, rear portion behind palate). The air stream is stopped, popped, hissed, directed, or cut by the articulators to produce the various sounds of speech. Imagine trying to communicate with only sounds produced in the larynx!

While many people have legitimate reasons to have articulation problems such as cleft palates and tongue problems, most articulation problems are caused by incorrect learning of speech or by laziness. Some of the common difficulties are:

omission of sounds—	"govment" for "government," "goverment" for "government," "tes-s" for "tests"
substitution of sounds—	"jist" for "just"
transposition of sounds—	"revelant" for "relevant"
addition of sounds—	"athalete" for "athlete," "Westminister" for "Westminster," "knowan" for "known"
slurring of sounds—	"watcha gonna do?"

Such common articulation problems distract, imply laziness, show lack of precision, and result in misunderstanding.

You can avoid articulation problems by concentrating on the following.

√ Develop the habit of listening to your articulation.

√ Make each sound distinct without over-articulation.

√ Develop an awareness of common words that are slurred together.

√ Open your mouth more for projection.

√ Avoid any obstructions such as gum.

√ Slow down. Rapid speech frequently causes articulation problems in public address. Actually focusing on clear articulation will slow you down.

• *Integration*

Integration is the coordination of all activities by the nervous system to produce speech. Speakers must be able to coordinate the respiration, phonation, resonance, and articulation to produce correct, connected sounds. They must be able to develop combinations that engender a meaning in the mind of others that matches the meaning in their own mind. All of this must be coordinated with appropriate gestures, facial expression, movements, posture, tone of voice, and visual aids to produce a complex of meanings in public address.

The integration of all activities can involve many problems, but most problems go beyond the range of this course. Speech therapists often become involved with integration problems that necessitate help from other experts. However, the major concern here is the occasional problem of order in which words or sounds are transposed or mixed. The problem is usually caused by too much speed or by nervousness. Slowing down, monitoring of speech, and control are the usual remedies.

Responsibilities of Speaker and Audience

While we have focused on the proper production of speech sounds, you must also recognize the importance of the effect that speech or voice has on people. A pleasant, clear, articulate, well-projected voice has a much more favorable impact on an audience than does the voice that is weak, strident, congested, confused, or loud. Both speaker and audience make judgments about personalities, motives, purposes, and value of ideas of speakers based only upon the sound of their voice. While such judgments are not just, the speaker and the audience should recognize that those judgments do occur and that both parties have responsibility regarding

voice.

Speakers' responsibilities are: to recognize that judgments of personality occur, to work toward a good quality voice, and to be aware that voice problems cause misunderstanding. They should work for that speech which will result in correct understanding.

The audience's responsibilities are: to recognize their own reactions to the speaker's voice, to correct those reactions, to avoid making judgments about a speaker's personality based on voice, and to encourage the use of good voice.

Review Questions for Chapter 14

1. Define and describe the following: respiration, pitch, intensity, rate, vibrato, resonance, integration, articulation, phonation, fundamental, and overtone.

2. What is high-chest breathing, and what can the speaker do to correct it?

3. What can speakers do to correct these problems:
   a. a dry "throat" or larynx
   b. too high pitch

4. What are the articulators?

5. What are the resonators?

6. What can speakers do to keep resonators working well and to improve resonance?

7. Describe or explain each of the following articulation problems and supply an example of each: omission, substitution, addition, and slurring.

8. What can speakers do to avoid articulation problems?

9. What responsibilities does the audience have in relation to the speaker's voice?

10. What general responsibilities do speakers have regarding their voices?

Chapter Fifteen
Language

Without language, there is no speech. Words have impact. Word choice does make a difference. Consider the following statement: "What I did this afternoon, you know, was like, uh, oh, really fun." In this quotation, the listener can gain only a vague idea of what is in the speaker's mind. Notice the difference from this statement: "Our tour of the U.S. Supreme Court building this afternoon inspired me to study architecture." The second sentence engenders significantly more and clearer meaning than the first.

Traditionally, the term *style* was limited to language usage, and that is the way we will use the term in this book. Style does not include delivery or a personal way of handling a speech. Here you will be dealing with language—the way words are put together and the choices of words that give speech impact and movement.

There is an element of personal taste involved, but one person's taste should not be assumed to be equal to another's taste. While words cannot be prescribed in all instances, certain words have impact while other words do not. Certainly, grammatical accuracy can be determined exactly, and liveliness can also be demonstrated. So, without a technical definition of language or style, keep in mind that it refers to *word choice, word arrangement, and sentence arrangement.*

In this chapter we will discuss the importance of language, examine some constituents of effective language, caution you on what language usage should be avoided, and recommend several ways you can develop good oral style.

The Importance of Language

Language serves as a catalyst that causes acceptance or rejection of a message. It influences attitude change. If you think of great speakers of our time, you will find that they were experts at handling language. A few names quickly come to mind: Adlai Stevenson, Martin Luther King, Jr., Winston Churchill, and John F. Kennedy. Earlier examples could be Cicero, Demosthenes, and the Apostles in the New Testament. On the other hand, some of the important people of our time have been former Presidents, but few of them are renowned for their speaking ability. For example, Gerald R. Ford, Jimmy Carter, Richard Nixon, Lyndon Johnson, and Dwight Eisenhower were not experts in word choice or arrangement.

Good language style gives a speech life. Poor use of language results in a

pedestrian presentation that listeners will sit through, but they are relieved when it is finished. At times, speakers try to substitute a bombastic delivery in place of creative language, but the energy exerted for bombast is greater than the resulting impact of the speech on the audience.

The essence of communication lies in symbols that engender meaning, and the essence of symbols lies most importantly in language. (Although the importance of nonverbal symbols should not be discounted.) Language, then, is a very significant part of the communication process.

To illustrate the difference language makes in arousing meaning, consider this famous statement by John F. Kennedy: "Ask not what your country can do for you—ask what you can do for your country." It might also have been written this way: "People tend to demand that the government take care of their needs instead of being willing to contribute their full share." Kennedy's statement is interesting and lively, while the other is drab.

Some people think that speech is no more than an oral essay. Without getting into possible differences between oral and written language style here, we wish to point out that speakers should pay attention to the sounds of words. The audience gets one chance to hear your words—they cannot go back and to check and recheck as the reader can. Sentences in oral communication cannot be as complex as they might be in written communication. If a student tries to take an essay from freshman English to give as a speech in Communication class, the grade will likely be different. An "A" on an essay in writing class might not translate into an "A" in speech class, even if both instructors are focusing on language. (Each instructor's comments about language could differ without being contradictory.) Remember, simple oral style in public address is more effective than complex style.

Several suggestions are offered here for improving oral language. These suggestions can also be good for written language, but the focus is only on the oral. Several examples will illustrate the various constituents of effective oral language.

Constituents of Effective Oral language

The following set of constituents is not meant to be exhaustive. However, if you work at implementing them, your oral language will improve or, at least, will be above reproach.

Accuracy

Keep in mind two kinds of accuracy. First, choose words that will

represent as clearly as possible what you want the listener to understand. Notice, you may have to use their vocabulary or, at least, carefully explain some of your words.

Also make sure your grammar is correct. Cicero said: "Nobody ever admired an orator for correct grammar, they only laugh at him if his grammar is bad, and not only think him no orator but not even a human being." He makes a very important point: no one notices grammar if it is correct, but a mistake will jump out at the audience and grab its attention. Furthermore, the audience then spends the next few moments thinking about the mistake rather than thinking about what the speaker is trying to present. The most common grammatical error of many speech students is putting plural subjects with singular verbs or vice versa. Avoid these scrupulously!

Clarity

Work for precision. Be concrete rather than abstract. Keep in mind your audience more than your own preferences. By attempting to take the audience's frame of reference, you will increase your chances for clarity. You can be accurate but unclear, and, of course, misinformation can be communicated quite clearly. Decide how much you can say and still be clear. Some examples of words that would arouse different meanings in different audiences are *liberal, moral, normative, religious, criticism,* and *sophisticated*. Many more can be added. Be careful that your audience clearly understands what you intend.

Propriety

Your choice of words should be *appropriate for the subject matter.* Don't use flowery language to describe a tomato. A sunset would more appropriately call for elegant language.

Your choice of words should be *appropriate for the audience.* Some audiences would be unable to understand the jargon of your particular interests. Most groups have jargon that is known only by its members.

Your choice of words should be *appropriate for the occasion.* Is the occasion formal or informal? Does it permit use of colloquial language, or does it require dignity of language? Normally public address requires dignity of language. The vulgar language of the street or of the barn is

entirely out of place in all public address. If you are in doubt about your choice, favor the more dignified language rather than the language of the hall, sidewalk, or dorm room.

Your choice of words should be *appropriate for the speaker.* You need to keep in mind your abilities. Some words and arrangements you can handle; some you cannot. There is a personal element in language that should not be ignored. Yet, remember that you are learning; you are growing in your use of language. Speech class provides an excellent opportunity to increase your speaking vocabulary. While certain arrangements may not seem appropriate to you at first, after you try them a few times, you will find that they become more natural. Flowery words or attempts to impress your audience with your words for their own sake is not what is required here. Improvement is.

Force

Listeners appreciate language that has drive, urgency, and action. You should learn to use active rather than passive sentences. Concrete words help. Be straightforward.

Precise and simple grammatical constructions produce force. Keeping subjects and verbs close together helps to give a speech drive.

Economy

The rule here is "the right choice of words, in the right amount, and in the right order." Some students are long-winded and repeat ideas frequently. Although some repetition is helpful in public address, in the short speeches required in speech class, you should keep repetition to a minimum. Long-windedness results from a lack of preparation and from the notion that once you are up in front, you had better keep talking about the idea while the audience is still listening.

However, one needs to pay close attention to possible feedback from the audience. If the audience seems to understand, move on. Don't misinterpret interest on the part of the audience as an invitation to keep talking about the same point. They are interested in the outcome of this particular point, so move on. If they have puzzled looks on their faces, you might need to amplify your message.

Finally, some students are too tight with words. Avoid that also.

Vividness is another term often used to describe this constituent. It refers to making a speech colorful and crisp. Several techniques help develop freshness in a speech that otherwise would be dull.

√ Variety in word choice. For example, instead of regularly using the word *good*, try some of its synonyms: *excellent, admirable, choice, exceptional, fine, select,* or *splendid.*

√ Variety in sentence structure. While simple sentences are commendable, the speaker should not use the same pattern throughout the speech. When introducing main points, for example, the speaker can do so in a variety of ways. Occasionally an imperative sentence might replace a declarative one. At other times, a complex sentence is preferable to several simple sentences. Sometimes compound sentences provide variety.

√ Use repetition carefully. It can provide life. Certain words can be used several times. Observe President Roosevelt's war message on December 8, 1941: "*Last night Japanese forces attacked* Hong Kong. *Last night Japanese forces attacked* Guam. *Last night Japanese forces attacked* the Philippine Islands. *Last night the Japanese attacked* Wake Island." (italics ours)

√ Use parallelism. Notice that this technique is not the same as the previous one. Here the idea is repeated, but the words are not. For example, one might say "the journey is long, the road is difficult, and few will finish the course." One can also use parallelism in sentence structure. President Gerald R. Ford used parallelism in his acceptance speech at the Republican National Convention in 1976 by listing a series of promises the Republicans were making to the nation if he were elected. Parallelism properly used provides force in the speech.

√ Appeal to the senses. Try to use words so the audience can easily imagine what you are describing. If you are appealing to the sense of touch, give the audience words that clearly describe what

should be felt. If you are talking about the cold weather, use words to help the audience feel how cold it is. Simply giving the temperature is not enough.

√ Try antithesis. This technique pits two opposing ideas against each other. When Douglas MacArthur described the American soldier he said, "I do not know the dignity of their birth, but I do know the glory of their death." Antithesis is used frequently in major persuasive speeches by politicians.

√ Use metaphor. A comparison between two things often adds life. Comparing the main idea to an object calls attention to the idea. For example, comparing the educational process to the construction of a building helps the audience think differently about education. Metaphor, if used well, can be extremely effective in helping the audience stay with the speech. It is one of the most powerful uses of language.

√ Employ clear and concrete images. They are never out of place. The Statue of Liberty being showered with fireworks highlighted the theme of the American Bicentennial Celebration.

√ Substitute the present tense for the past tense wherever possible.

√ Try unique expressions which seize the attention of listeners. In his eulogy for Winston Churchill, Adlai Stevenson said: "There is a lonesome place against the sky." He could have said, "A star has fallen," but that would have been more ordinary than the sentence he actually used. John F. Kennedy's "Ask not what your country can do for you—ask what you can do for your country" has remained in the minds of Americans for more than two decades. Be careful that unique expression does not become exhibitionism. It should not be used for its own sake, but it should be part of an attempt to give your ideas impact and movement.

The above list is not complete. In working for liveliness, you must

put your imagination to work. Use your imagination to develop techniques beyond those described above. Good public addresses often contain several examples of liveliness. Some speeches you may want to study are identified near the end of this chapter.

Language should not be decoration for exhibition, but a facet of speech-making derived from reasonable and imaginative management of words. Later in this chapter, several concrete steps for improving language will be offered. First, however, you should examine those uses of language to avoid.

What to Avoid in Oral Language

The easiest way to improve the use of language is to know what to avoid. Some language choices hinder audience acceptance of messages. Show respect for the audience in your language just as you would in any other part of speech. The following items should not be used.

Rhetorical Questions

Many students use rhetorical questions to make their speeches lively. They are not always to blame. Unfortunately, textbooks frequently suggest this technique. The rhetorical question is asked and the answer is assumed, for example, "Do you know how many people want to lose weight?" The speaker assumes that the audience will not know, and therefore he or she can proceed with the speech on weight-watching.

There are at least three problems with rhetorical questions. First, it is possible that someone in the audience will answer the question aloud in the wrong way and then the speaker is embarrassed. Even if the answer is silent, the speaker is likely to lose that part of the audience.

Second, rhetorical questions usually serve as a substitute for solid evidence. This is called *begging the question,* as noted earlier in the chapter on reasoning. Immediately one should question the ethics of using rhetorical questions as substitutes for good evidence when a speaker is ethically bound to use solid evidence out of respect for listeners.

Third, rhetorical questions are over-used especially by novice speakers. Many speakers use them as a persuasive technique, but,

because they have been used so much, audiences quickly tire of them. A speaker *can* persuade with rhetorical questions, but whether one can ethically persuade with them is problematic. If you cannot avoid them entirely, use them very sparingly.

Jargon

Jargon is a specialized vocabulary for particular groups or disciplines. It becomes a substitute for clear explanation. Such short-cuts may be fine for members of the group, but jargon rarely transcends particular boundaries. Each discipline has its own jargon that people outside that discipline have difficulty understanding. For example, debaters frequently use terms such as *disads, hypothesis-tester,* and *alternative justification* with very specialized meanings that non-debaters would not understand. For speech class, eliminate jargon from speeches.

Loaded word choice

"Loaded" words carry with them certain meanings that the audience is expected to understand. Usually these meanings are negative. Consider these words: *communist, liberal, humanist, tight-wad,* and *racist.* Notice that frequently this technique involves name-calling unless the basis for the word choice is very clear. Emotionally charged words are sometimes used to replace careful thinking. Word choice should *not* serve as a substitute for clear evidence and reasoning. Only after a speaker has clearly made his case should he use terms that otherwise might be regarded as loaded.

Cliché

This term refers to trite and overused words that have lost much of their meaning. The following examples of overused words and phrases should be avoided in speeches: *pretty as a picture, smart as a whip, white as a sheet, take seriously,* and *never in a million years.* Similarly, you should avoid colloquial and over-used words such as, *really, gonna,* or *great.* You can easily add to the list. Try new words rather than tiring the audience with these worn-out ones.

Ambiguity

This technique uses words to make the meaning hazy or confusing. Surely ambiguous language is not clear because it can often have more than one meaning. For example, what does *American way* mean? In some Christian circles, *redeeming creation* is a noble sounding phrase that is not only incorrect because only Jesus redeems, but this phrase can also have a variety of meanings for an audience.

Lifting out of context

Sometimes a speaker quotes another person to support his or her point when the other person did not have that meaning at all. Be sure that you understand the meaning of the original quotation and use it correctly so the audience understands clearly what the original author intended. To misuse quotations is unethical. Such a technique fails to respect the author and fails to respect the audience. By using this tactic, the speaker misleads the audience into thinking the original author meant only what the speaker implies.

Development of Oral language

Besides avoiding the list you have just read, you should also take note of the following suggestions. They are helpful not only for beginning speakers, but also for experienced speakers who work with them perhaps even more than do beginners. They know how important use of language is in public address.

√ *Become language conscious*

Become sensitive to the way words are used by others as well as yourself. Careful listening to many speakers helps. Acquire a library of language reference works. Buy a thesaurus if you do not already own one. It is a wise investment for speaking and writing. By using it you will soon learn many different ways to word your point. You will often discover better word choices than you had originally planned.

√ *Increase your speaking vocabulary*

Try using new words. You will likely find that you quickly feel

comfortable speaking with new words. You will not improve without experimenting, and speech class is an excellent place to experiment. In class, you can afford to make a mistake and learn from it. You have a chance to explain what you meant if the meaning is not clear to the audience. In most other speaking situations, you will not have that opportunity.

√ Write your speeches

You are now back to one of the suggestions made early in this book. Writing parts, even if you do not write all, of a speech helps you attend to word choice and arrangement. Of course, you need not memorize what you have written. If you prepare carefully, you will likely remember what you planned.

√ Rewrite your speeches

This may be the most difficult part for you. When you have a speech written, you are tempted to think "this is it." Resist that temptation. Rewriting almost always improves a speech. A first draft will sound like a first draft! The difference between a first draft and a polished speech is significant.

√ Study live and published speeches

Attend speeches given by significant social and political leaders and those given on campus. If there is a Presidential speech scheduled, consider it your obligation as a student of public address to listen to it. Often noteworthy speeches are later reprinted. This, too, is an excellent opportunity to learn more about language usage. Vital Speeches, which is published twice a month, contains noteworthy speeches. You should become familiar with this excellent resource. A sample of published speeches, which you would profit from reading, is offered below.

√ Speak in public whenever you can

Instead of avoiding opportunities to speak in public, accept them as a challenge. Experience is a fine teacher of public address when it is combined with the advice offered in this class.

Implementing these recommendations should help considerably to improve your oral language. Keep the constituents in mind as you work through these recommendations. Soon you will discover that language is more important than you had previously thought.

Several important speeches are listed below for your consideration. Most of them demonstrate effective use of language, although you will not find that they are perfect. Studying them will prove enlightening.

Douglas MacArthur, "Farewell to the Cadets"
Martin Luther King, Jr., "I Have a Dream"
Adlai Stevenson, "Eulogy to Sir Winston Churchill"
John F. Kennedy, "Inaugural Address"
Ken Lonnquist (a student), "Ghosts"
—all five of the above are in Linkugel, et. al., Contemporary American Speeches, 4th ed.
Martin Luther, "Here I Stand"
Winston Churchill, "Blood, Sweat, and Tears"
William Jennings Bryan, "Cross of Gold"
Abraham Lincoln, "Second Inaugural Address" and "Gettysburg Address"
Russel Conwell, "Acres of Diamonds"
Franklin D. Roosevelt, "Declaration of War"

Many more speeches could be added to this list. Any good anthology of speeches available in the library will have some speeches that demonstrate effective and lively use of language. Many present day speakers are able to use the language well, also. Ronald Reagan was known as the "Great Communicator" and was regarded by speech critics to be an effective speaker.

You now have the necessary equipment. Get started, and you will soon be far down the road toward improved language in public address. You, too, can be an excellent speaker.

Review Questions for Chapter 15

1. Why is oral language important?
2. How and why is oral language style different from written style?
3. Explain each of the constituents of effective oral language.
4. What can the speaker do to improve liveliness in language?
5. Describe and give an example of each of the problems speakers should avoid in oral language. Explain why each problem should be avoided?
6. What steps can speakers follow to improve their oral language?

Chapter Sixteen
Speech Criticism

To this point, you have examined several elements that constitute an ethical speech. You have studied expository materials, persuasive appeals, and evidence. All of these were aimed at the *preparation* of a speech. Now you are at a point where you will examine how a speech works with an audience. No one should be content simply to dismiss a speech after it is given or to forget about it and move on. You will want to know something about how it works. Thus, you are now into the field of speech criticism.

In this chapter we will define speech criticism, discuss the processes involved in criticism, explain current standards for evaluation, and suggest means for implementing processes of criticism in class.

Definition of Criticism

In the lay person's mind the term *criticism* usually has negative connotations. Often criticism amounts to complaining about someone's work, to saying what is wrong with the church, or even to disagreeing with another. A "critical person" is often a negative one who complains much.

However, in the scholarly world, criticism means something very different. Like argumentation, criticism is regarded as a positive activity. The heart of criticism is argumentation that supplies evidence and reasoning in an attempt to get others to agree with the scholar's claim that the speech was effective or ineffective. Critics want others to agree with their understanding of how the speech worked.

In this chapter, the focus is on *rhetorical criticism.* Rhetorical criticism is one subdivision of the academic discipline of communication. One can specialize in rhetorical criticism while obtaining an advanced degree in communication.

Criticism is an essential part of public address as well as other forms of communication. Without criticism the speaker will likely not improve. Criticism seeks to increase one's understanding of speech. A succinct definition that you should remember is this: *Criticism is a means of providing insight, evaluation, and appreciation. Rhetorical criticism, then, is a means of providing insight, evaluation, and appreciation of public address or another rhetorical form of communication.* In this book, we will simply use the term *speech criticism* rather than getting into questions about the exact meaning of the term *rhetorical.*

Processes in Speech Criticism

A reminder is appropriate at the outset. Critics must demonstrate respect for the speaker and be honest in their appraisal. Ethical principles guide criticism as well as any other process of communication.

Criticism is a very demanding task. Quick impressions rarely provide the insight that is needed. Impressions often focus only on emotions, which quickly flee. Good criticism is much more.

Critics take the role of analysts. As analysts, they seek to explain and evaluate the choices the speaker has made in trying to influence the audience. This means that critics must understand what has taken place from both the speaker's point of view and the point of view of the listener. They explain how and why the listeners respond to these techniques as they do. In a sense, critics step back from the speech to understand what has happened. By explaining what has taken place, critics foster understanding of the methods and techniques of the speaker.

Often critics face several questions. What is it that interests me about this speech? What is it that makes this speech work? Why do I think this is a good or not-so-good speech? They will quickly check many different elements of a speech. They can then concentrate on one or all of these: the speaker's arguments (which are often an excellent place to focus), appeals, word choice, gestures, use of voice, the organization, the value of the topic, the audience's response, and the setting of the speech. Critics should strive for a total view, but this does not mean that they must deal with everything. Rather, they must place their criticism in the context of the whole speech. To try to handle each element is probably too demanding and might not prove worth the effort. Therefore, critics determine which elements are important in making the speech what it is. Then, they can choose some elements for extended evaluation, since their responsibility is to enlighten an audience and/or the speaker. Maybe the speaker is unaware of some bad tactics in the speech, and critics can focus on these to provide necessary help.

To try to make your understanding of criticism more concrete, you should note that criticism usually involves four processes. To separate these processes neatly into categories is difficult, but the processes are separated in this chapter for explanation.

Describing

The first process of criticism is revealing the speech. Remember that one of

the aspects of the definition of criticism was its purpose to provide insight. This means that critics do not just review the speech. Rather, they must enlighten the audience's understanding of what occurred. Description should be at a deeper and more complete level than the audience already has. Because of their expertise, critics can describe *what* happened perhaps better than the audience can.

Furthermore, critics often write for people who were not present during the speech. For this reason, critics need to include enough description of the speech that the readers can understand the essence of the speech even if they were not present.

Analyzing

At this point, critics break a speech into its parts. For example, a critic might decide to show how the speaker used arguments; i.e., what the connections are between the evidence and claims. The purpose of analysis is to identify the separate aspects of a speech to see better how all the parts fit together. If the speech is well-constructed, the critic's appreciation will permeate the analysis, and influence the audience's appreciation of the speech. Critics consider why the speaker made particular choices. They might also consider what elements influenced the audience to respond as it did. This could mean critics would probe the background or context of the public speaking event. In no way should critics feel constrained to stay within the bounds of the public speaking event since many forces influence what occurred during the speech. They need to discover all significant elements that made the speech operate in the manner it did.

Interpreting

This process involves considering the meaning of the speech or of the techniques used in the speech. It explains what the previous analysis means. Critics interpret the meaning of particular choices and how those choices influenced the entire event of the speech. They provide insight into why a particular speaker is so popular or so effective. Because of their training in and practice of critical skills, they are often able to see farther and deeper than the audience. Therefore, critics have an obligation to explain their interpretations of the speech and argue that the audience should see it in the same way.

Evaluating

This process within the context of criticism is one that deserves special attention. Too often people jump into evaluation before doing careful description, analysis, or interpretation. Often students evaluate before careful analysis and interpretation. People are quicker to complain than to compliment. People are quicker to assume evaluation is negative than positive. To evaluate is by no means wrong. Nor can you escape evaluation because it is inherent in criticism. Avoiding hasty evaluation is the goal here. Speeches or papers of criticism must not *simply* be those that say what was wrong.

After adequate description, analysis, and interpretation, the critics have a responsibility not only to evaluate but also to make the basis of judgment very clear. Particular techniques or speaker choices should be evaluated. Critics must also judge the quality and worth of the speech. Critics show the audience what is good or bad, right or wrong.

Several commonly used standards for critical judgment are described next. If you listen after a speech is finished, you will likely hear some listeners using these standards. You will have to decide on your own standards and be able to justify them.

Standards for Critical Judgment

Results Standard

Those who use this simplistic standard usually allow the speaker's purpose to stand without an evaluation of it. The primary question these critics ask is: Did the speaker accomplish that purpose? If so, the speaker is commended. This is a very pragmatic type of standard, but it is also common among critics who say that one should not evaluate purposes—only speeches and techniques. There are, however, several problems with this standard:

a. Frequently it is hard to determine results. Should one check immediately after the speech? Should one check the long-term results? Abraham Lincoln's address at Gettysburg was not well-received by critics on the day he gave it. Later it became famous. When should one check for results? Second, what methods can and should one use to determine results?
b. We don't always know if the results are due solely to the speech. For example, suppose an audience is persuaded after a speech on the North American Free Trade Agreement to be in favor of it. Did the speech

persuade them, or were they persuaded before the speech? Or, perhaps they talked to someone immediately after the speech, and that conversation persuaded them.

c. This standard is exceedingly narrow. This position would have to call Hitler's speeches good since they achieved the results that Hitler wanted. He was a master of technique! Critics using this standard only examine whether a speaker achieved his or her end—no matter how good or bad that end is. If speakers use questionable means to achieve their purposes, this standard allows critics little room to evaluate those questionable means.

Truth Standard

A speech that clarifies, upholds, or reveals the truth is regarded as a good speech according to this standard. It, too, is quite common. Sometimes when a person complains about a minister's sermon, another person says, "Well, but he preached the Bible—he spoke the truth."

There are some problems with this standard also, even though there is an important element of good in it that you should not overlook, namely, telling the truth. Critics who use this standard alone face these problems:

a. The method of speaking is ignored or downplayed in this standard. To hold that content is the only thing that is important in speech is too limited. Content is very important, but so is delivery. It dichotomizes content and delivery when the two are often inseparable. Delivery influences content, and content affects delivery.

b. It is not always easy to determine what the truth is in a particular matter. For example, how is one to know when the President is telling the truth about U.S. involvement in a foreign country? If critics are unable to determine the truth, then they are unable to evaluate the speech.

Speaker's Intent Standard

Essentially this standard says that if the speaker's intent is good, then one should judge the speech to be good. Critics using this standard tend to judge less on the results or what happened during the speech. Sometimes critics will diminish what the speaker has said if they judge that the speaker had good intents. They suggest that if the speaker tried to present a proper speech, he or she should not be blamed if the speech failed on other accounts. Again some problems are:

a. A holistic view is absent. Those who use this standard look only at one element of speech-making. They should look at the whole event.
b. Intents are extremely difficult to judge. Should the critic simply take the speaker's word on this? Are there independent means of checking intents?
c. Criteria for what is a proper intent vary considerably. Critics are not often consistent with each other on how to determine what is a good intent. It can be difficult to separate one's political views from the evaluation of the intents of a political speaker.
d. This standard allows a critic to ignore a speaker's use of resources. If intent is all critics look at, we can forget about everything else and say, "Oh, but he meant well; he tried to do his best!" However, intents and attempts do not justify an "A" speech—either in the classroom or elsewhere. This standard does not allow critics to examine the speech event itself.

Artistic Standard

In the books on rhetorical criticism, this standard is advocated often since it attempts to combine the good aspects of the standards described so far: the speaker's intent, truthfulness, and results. It is frequently based on principles evident in speeches of the past that have been acknowledged as good. For example, if most of the parts of speech-making described by Cicero are present, critics using the artistic standard would evaluate the speech as good. According to this standard, speech is an art. Although this standard is an improvement over those described above, there are some problems with this one, too.

a. Since new situations may require new techniques of speech, the standards of good speech-making in the past may not be adequate for this speech.
b. The criteria for judging a speech as good are not always evident.
c. Some who use this standard view speech primarily as a work of art when it is much more than a work of art. Certainly artistic use of language ought to be part of speech, but to use only artistic standards to judge a speech is to ignore other important parts, such as argument.

Principles Standard

Your authors use this name for our standard in this introductory speech text. Our position will not be described at length here because the entire book elaborates it. This approach maintains that certain ethical principles—principles for good

communication—should guide all speech-making, and speeches will be judged by these principles. Your review of the chapter on ethics will help you understand how we think speeches should be evaluated. For example, public speech should demonstrate full respect for the audience. The entire book has tried to make clear what the speaker and audience must do to demonstrate full respect for each other. All speeches should help the audience to live more obediently.

It is your responsibility as students to develop and to defend your own standard. You should clarify in your mind what a good speech is. Be fully aware of what criteria you use to judge speeches of other classmates and others. Of course, you may adopt our perspective. We hope you do. However, you should not do so without carefully considering all that our position involves. You should not simply memorize our perspective and then call it your own without careful reflection. There might be several occasions in the classroom when you are called upon to defend your standard for critical judgment. Therefore, you should be prepared to state your standard and to defend your standard. Critics often need to justify their approaches.

Classroom Speech Criticism

When doing criticism, students should implement the four processes of criticism in the following way:

- √ Begin by describing important elements of the speech that might not be immediately apparent to the audience. This means that you should provide some insight and not merely review the speech. If you are writing for an audience that has not heard the speech, include enough elements of the speech to give clarity to your criticism.

- √ Try to explain why and how certain elements of the speech were chosen; why and how they had the effect they did. Some analysis is in order here. Take the speech apart so that your audience can see clearly the elements you wish to focus on.

- √ Analysis should be coupled immediately with interpretation. Explain the meaning of particular choices or actions of the speaker. How did these choices operate to engender meaning in the minds of the audience? If this

is a classroom speech, remember that often the speaker, as well as the audience, is looking to you for guidance.

√ Your position on what constitutes a good speech should be clear. Do not neglect this aspect altogether or attempt to rush over it quickly. The reader or listener is entitled to know your position without doubt. It is most helpful if your point of view is clear just before evaluation. Your evaluation can be implemented in a beginning speech class as follows:

a. Evaluation should not be a series of negative comments. A beginning speaker's self-image in class is involved here. Positive comments are important! Show the speaker what worked well. If your appreciation grew during the speech, explain how. Even weaknesses can be stated in a positive way. One way you might consider thinking here is: what was good about the speech, and what can I say to help the speaker improve?

b. Consider the knowledge, abilities, feelings, and inexperience of the speaker who is trying to learn about public address. Full respect must permeate criticism, too.

c. Reasons for the particular evaluation must be clear. Here is a good place to apply your own standards. If your position on what constitutes a good speech is viable, then you should be able to defend it here.

d. Speakers must be given direction for future speeches. Furthermore, show *how* they can move in the direction you advise. We think students should take direct responsibility for the development of the speakers in the classroom. If speakers sense that the audience is doing its best to help them excel, they will be motivated to a higher level.

Finally, as you should sense now, the task of criticism is not at all easy. It requires that the critic be an expert on communication. Do not rely on what you consider to be common sense. Nor is good communication good just because it fits what we think is nice or entertaining or exciting. Nevertheless, when you are able to provide insight and to help another become a more competent speaker, the effort

is certainly worthwhile. The challenge is large, but our responsibility requires that we move forward.

Included at the end of this chapter is a sample piece of criticism. President Carter was sincere when he delivered this speech on television. Yet, the speech did not have the impact that he wanted. How can the critic explain the lack of impact? Were his arguments bad? Was his delivery weak? Was his language inappropriate? Were his persuasive appeals weak? Did he lack credibility? Perhaps all of these may be true. However, a critic cannot investigate all areas of public address when examining one speech. The critic should focus on what he or she thinks is most important. In this short essay, language is the focus.

Read the criticism and judge for yourself whether the piece is convincing. It is just one illustration of many ways that criticism can be done.

Originally this piece was done for a graduate class in which each of the students was assigned to write a short piece of criticism on the President's speech which was seen on video. None of the short papers were alike because each critic chose a different focus.

Review Questions for Chapter 16

1. Define criticism.

2. Describe the four processes involved in speech criticism.

3. Describe these standards of speech criticism and indicate why each one is faulty: results, truth, speaker's intent, and artistic.

4. Describe the standard used by your instructor.

5. Why is it not enough to say "I like the speech," or "I agree with the speaker," or "I like the speaker's voice and appearance"?

6. Identify the standards of speech criticism indicated in these statements:
   a. "The speaker convinced me. He did a good job."
   b. "Churchill was a good speaker. Look how he moved England to fight in World War II."
   c. "The speaker used Scripture to support her position, so she had a good speech."
   d. "I like the speech because everything he said was true."
   e. "That speech was good. It would match any of the great speeches in history."
   f. "I would judge that speech to be a good one because it fit together nicely and had terrific style. The speaker certainly can express herself well."

War as Metaphor in President Carter's Energy Address to the American People

Charles Veenstra

Aware that the American people were not sufficiently concerned about saving energy, President Carter delivered his proposed energy policy speech to the people via television on April 18, 1977, two days before presenting the policy to Congress. Numerous statistics were offered throughout the speech demonstrating increasing use of energy. He referred specifically to the people's lack of belief in the energy crisis: "I know that some of you may doubt that we face real energy shortages" since "our homes are warm."

The rhetorical problem for Carter was clear: the energy crisis is real, but the people do not believe it, and consequently, they are wasting energy. The President must obtain the cooperation of the people and Congress in solving the energy problem. Of the choices he had available, he picked the metaphor of war. Although he did not limit himself to this tactic, clearly he assigned it a primary role. In this paper, I will explore the war metaphor in the President's address by describing and analyzing the language, by briefly noting characteristics of declarations of war—drawing on the war messages of Presidents Wilson and Roosevelt, and by interpreting and evaluating his efforts to get the people to enlist in the cause.

DESCRIPTION

Early in the speech, the President signals his intention to declare war on the problem that is "unprecedented in our history," "the greatest challenge our country will face during our lifetimes," and which will overwhelm us "if we do not act quickly." After warning of a "national catastrophe," he declares that "this difficult effort will be the 'moral equivalent of war.'" In the next part of the speech, Carter describes the problem in order to justify his declaration of war. Through elaborate statistics he explains how energy demand goes up so rapidly that production can hardly keep pace: "sometime in the mid 1980's . . . demand will overtake production." Again he refers indirectly to war when he says "If we fail to act soon, we will face an economic, social and political crisis that will threaten our free institutions." A list of goals for 1985 follow ten principles for his national energy plan. He concludes by warning that his proposed measure will demand sacrifices and "to some degree the sacrifices will by painful—but so is any meaningful sacrifice." After recalling that other generations have mastered challenges, he urges Americans to join with him to win the victory: "we can work together with patriotism and courage, we will again prove that our great nation can lead the world into an age of

peace, independence and freedom." On its face, then, the speech contains ample evidence that President Carter is declaring war.

ANALYSIS

However, closer analysis demonstrates that the President's declared war is, in fact, a limited war. President Wilson's request for a declaration of war during World War I and President Roosevelt's speech to the American people on December 8, 1941, signaling our entry into World War II, provide important clues to what is contained in a declaration of all-out war. First, realistic hope for winning the war is necessary. Wilson offers hope of victory: "We are now about to accept the gauge of battle with this natural foe to liberty and shall, if necessary, spend the whole force of the nation to check . . . its power."[18] Roosevelt admits that the war may be long but it will be won: "I do not think any American has any doubt of our ability to administer proper punishment to the perpetrators of these crimes"(536). Second, a declaration of war presents the issue as immediate. Wilson discussed at length the unrestricted submarine warfare by the Germans and Roosevelt described Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor. Third, a war declaration would mobilize all forces. Wilson asked that Congress "take immediate steps not only to put the country in a more thorough state of defense, but also to exert all its power and employ all its resources . . . to end the war"(356). Roosevelt described in detail the mobilization efforts which were already begun months before his speech. Fourth, a declaration of all-out war would demand sacrifices from all. To the war effort, Wilson asserted: "We can dedicate our lives and our fortunes, everything we are and everything we have"(360). Roosevelt's terms are equally strong: "It is not a sacrifice . . . . Rather, it is a privilege"(535). Finally, declarations of war call for unity against a common enemy. Wilson clearly blamed the government of the German empire while Roosevelt blamed the Axis powers, especially Japan.

INTERPRETATION

President Carter offers little hope of quick solution to the problem and thus a foreseeable end to the war. Instead, he says in opening the speech, "it is a problem we will not solve in the next few years, and it is likely to get progressively worse through the rest of the century." Americans would not likely want to get involved in

[18] Lewis Copeland, ed., The World's Great Speeches (New York: Garden City Publishing Co., 1942), p. 358. All subsequent quotations from Wilson's and Roosevelt's speeches are taken from this source, with page numbers in parentheses after each quotation.

a war with little hope of winning in the foreseeable future since they had been through more than a decade of war recently in Vietnam in which there had been little realistic hope for victory. American public opinion influenced the government to finally abandon that war. The prospect of another long, drawn-out war with possible defeat is unconscionable.

The alternative to his proposals, the President argues, "may be national catastrophe." He thus qualifies his declaration of war. The terms "may be" reduce the certainty of the problem and weaken his plea. Given the American defeat in Vietnam, the people would not want to get involved in a war again unless they know the alternative certainly would be national catastrophe. Similarly, "further delay can affect our strength" demonstrates choice of weak words. "Can affect" plays down the immanence of the problem—delay presumably may or may not affect our strength. This word choice allows for doubt and thus works against his purpose of trying to convince us that war is necessary.

The President warns that some of his proposals "will cause you to put up with inconveniences and to make sacrifices." Notice that inconveniences are listed first. He is reluctant to ask for sacrifices first. War, however, would require sacrifices with little hesitation as both the Wilson and Roosevelt war messages show.

While recognizing that the people "may doubt that we face real energy shortages," Carter fails to bring to the individual or his family the full impact of the crisis. He consistently avoids concrete language that creates strong visualizations of the threat. Most of his statistics express the threat to the world and the nation, not the individual and his family. A concrete explanation of family energy use and waste would compellingly communicate the dramatic impact of sacrifice.

The manichean struggle of war seldom offers the participants a choice. War is perceived as a struggle for survival—either we fight or we die. In the war on the energy front, however, the President offers a choice, albeit one of the alternatives is undesirable: "Our choice is to continue to doing what we have been doing before. We can drift along for a few more years." The mental exercise of rational choice robs the crisis of urgency. Mobilization of efforts must follow decision. Of course, the "drifting-along" alternative is unpleasant, but his itemization of the consequences (spending $2500 for every person for imported oil in 1985) is not compellingly tied to this choice. Rather than stylistically drifting us along through several sentences, immediate, sharp, severe description of consequences urgently requires attention and action.

When Carter does get to the description of consequences, he employs terms that fit his metaphor of war: "we will live in fear of embargoes," "we could endanger

our freedom," "our factories will not be able to keep our people on the job," and "we will face an economic, social and political crisis that will threaten our free institutions." Yet, one gets the impression that the energy crisis is somewhere off in the future. By asserting "we will face" (emphasis mine) he suggests that our institutions are not now faced with crisis and therefore the conclusion can be drawn that a declaration of war is premature. Qualifying verbs weaken his description of consequences.

The President's discussion of ten principles which form the basis of his energy plan also diminishes the strength of his war metaphor. The first principle, that the government must take the responsibility for energy policy, lifts the burden from the people. Of course, he mentions the need for understanding and sacrifice by the people, but this is clearly after the government has done its part. Therefore, the government's failure to act justifies the people's failure to act. Inaction dooms a major element of his program—conservation, which his sixth principle labels the "cornerstone of our policy." Furthermore, he argues against himself later in the speech when he says, "whether this plan truly makes a difference will be decided not here in Washington, but in every town and every factory, in every home and on every highway and every farm."

In the second principle, Carter again decreases the importance of sacrifice by asserting that "healthy economic growth must continue" in order that we can maintain our standard of living. Unless the war is to be a limited one, a declaration of war demands that one sacrifice—at least temporarily—his standard of living. Roosevelt declared that it would be a privilege "to do all one can, to give one's best to the nation"(535). Moreover, Carter established a principle of fairness. He added: "our solutions must ask equal sacrifices from every region, every class of people, every interest group." In war, fairness is rarely a principle of operation. The principle itself invites people to compare themselves to see if they are sacrificing equally.

Near the end of the speech he again returns to sacrifice. After stressing the need to sacrifice "to protect our jobs, our environment, our standard of living, and our future," he weakens his plea several sentences later with "but the sacrifices will be gradual, realistic and necessary. Above all, they will be fair." Perhaps instituting sacrifices gradually makes the audience more comfortable, but doing so also undermines the metaphor of war by not requiring immediate action by the people. Fairness appears as the ultimate principle—sacrifices and even the war on energy must be made subservient to it.

The final characteristic of a declaration of war—a united effort against a

common enemy—is notably absent in Carter's speech. The enemy is the American people's waste and he could have asked Americans to unite in helping each other avoid waste. This lack provides further evidence of Carter's failure to follow through with his original choice of the war metaphor.

EVALUATION

War is the ultimate measure a society can use. It is the last resort. If the President wishes to use this metaphor for rhetorical effect, then he should be consistent in using it throughout the speech. By weakening it at several points, he diminishes the impact of it in convincing the people to enlist in his army in the fight to save energy.

Appendix A

Instructions for Speeches

Speech of Introduction

Comments:

You know yourself, your past, your goals, your fears better than others do. For this speech you will introduce yourself to the class. For your preparation for this speech, you should read the material on speech preparation and attitudes toward public address in Chapter Four. Try to avoid the problem attitudes. Remember these points:

1. Keep in mind that you are not the only one that is nervous. We all are. We all sweat, shiver, and worry when it is time for us to speak.
2. We are all concerned when you are speaking. If your hands shake, we feel with and for you. If you cannot think of a word, we all want to give you the word. If you hesitate, we all want to help. This is a normal reaction from the audience.
3. Your instructor will be trying to locate strengths and weaknesses so that he can help you better in the future. Check with your instructor to see if this speech is graded.
4. Try to be creative. Attempt to introduce yourself in a unique way. Tell your audience who you are or what you believe by way of a story or an account of your goals. You are not limited to any one format or design. Try to avoid the usual introductory speech about where you were born, where you attended school, the fact that you fell from your crib, that you like ice cream. Try something different.
5. Possibly try some humor if you believe you can do it. Don't encourage your audience to laugh *at* you, but *with* you.

Requirements:

1. Time limit is 3 to 5 minutes—no less than 3 or more than 5 minutes.
2. Be prepared to answer questions after the speech. At times, members of the audience like to ask questions after the speech. Do not be surprised by the questions, and do not feel affronted if no questions are asked.
3. Be prepared to speak on the day assigned.
4. Somewhere in the speech you should give the following information: your name, your home territory, and your goals.
5. Practice the speech aloud before giving it.
6. Observe others' speeches to determine what speech-making techniques are good.
7. Remember that all comments about your speech are given to help you become a better speaker. No one will attack you as a person.
8. Listen attentively and support other speakers.

One-Argument Speech

Comments:

Sometimes the authors have assigned this speech early in the course to help students begin to focus on preparing solid content for their speeches. By working first on content, we have found that students were less likely to worry about nervousness related to delivery.

Through class discussion, positions for various topics are identified. Students are asked to discover individual arguments for particular positions. They are then asked to prepare a short speech that supplies only one argument for a position. Of course, the speech cannot contain an attack or a defense of the entire position. The speaker identifies the claim that supports a particular position and supports that claim with evidence. The audience is permitted to raise questions about that claim when the speaker has finished.

The evaluation form (included in Appendix B) lists the questions a speaker should review when preparing the speech. While the questions include delivery, the focus is on the content of the speech, and you should be most concerned with how you construct the argument. It may be helpful for you to read the chapters on evidence and reasoning before giving the speech.

Requirements:

1. Time limit is 3 to 5 minutes.
2. Follow the speaking order given by your instructor and be prepared on the day you are assigned.
3. Write out your claim and briefly list the support you will use and give this to your instructor before you begin to speak.
4. Be ready to answer questions about the strength of your argument.
5. Listen carefully to the other speeches and raise questions and comments about them.

Informative Speech

Comments:

You have already read the chapter on the informative speech. You might have also heard some informative speeches in class already, and you may have delivered one yourself. Before you begin your preparation for this speech, review your readings on ethics, organization, and the informative speech. You might also find that a review of the chapter on speech preparation will be helpful.

Based upon your knowledge of your audience, write out your thesis statement and study its wording carefully. Does it indicate that you wish to tell your audience something, or are you trying to change their thinking, encourage action, or get them to buy something? If it is the latter, you are probably moving toward persuasion. While the distinction might be difficult, you need to be sure that your purpose is to enlighten, to inform.

The instructor has already explained the evaluation form he will be using and has told you what aspects of public address he will be evaluating. This could be your first graded speech, but do not let that knowledge cause you problems. You already have given one or more speeches; you have the needed information; and you are ready to start work. Concentrate on the speech—not on yourself and not on the instructor. Don't try to "outguess" the instructor. He is prepared to listen to and fairly treat any subject whether he agrees with the position or not.

You are now ready to begin. Analyze your audience, select a topic and begin to research, but remember to practice. The authors recommend practicing before your roommates or friends or before a mirror. Practice your gestures and movements also. Don't just quietly read your manuscript in the back corner of the library. If you want help, see your instructor.

Requirements:

1. Time limit is 4 to 6 minutes. (Do not speak longer than six minutes.)
2. Before you speak, hand your instructor an outline that includes the complete introduction, the complete conclusion, and list your sources.
3. Include your thesis statement or purpose and main points in your introduction.
4. Follow the assigned speaking order and be prepared.
5. Continue to listen well and develop your criticism skills.
6. Be ready to discuss each speech if time permits.

Impromptu Speech

Comments:

Previous students have indicated that this series was interesting, valuable, and challenging. Many recommended that they be required to give impromptu speeches early in the course.

Outside of the public address course, the impromptu speech is found in several areas. In forensic speech contests, the speaker selects three slips of paper from an envelope. A speech topic is written on each slip. The speaker selects one topic and is given two minutes to think, after which he or she delivers a speech of three to five minutes. In public, the impromptu speech is found in various settings ranging from an unprepared speech at a public hearing called to assess public reaction to power lines, zoning, etc., to the "thank you" speech when one unexpectedly receives an award at a banquet. The major characteristic is the lack of time to prepare the speech, which demands that the speaker be able to "think on his feet."

In the classroom situation you might be given three to four minutes to prepare a speech on a topic you select from those you draw from a list. After you have drawn the topic and prepared the speech, you will be required to speak for a minimum of three minutes and a maximum of four minutes.

The following procedure is recommended for your preparation. First, select the speech topic that is most familiar to you. Avoid those topics that have strange or unknown terms. Also select the topic that lends itself to rapid analysis or logical breakdown. Second, on one 3 x 5 or 4 x 6 card, write down your thesis statement. Third, develop an outline of single words or brief phrases that will help you remember the points. Fourth, think of an anecdote or recent incident you can relate in the introduction. Write the outline and a phrase or two from the anecdote on your note card. Fifth, use these guidelines when giving the speech:

Tell us what you are going to say — Introduction
Say it — Body
Tell us what you have said — Conclusion

Finally, relax, you don't have time to get nervous! You will enjoy this one!

Requirements:

1. Time limit is 3 to 4 minutes. Your instructor will signal the time.
2. One note card.
3. Follow the assigned speaking order.
4. Be an attentive and courteous audience members.

Speech of Your Choice

Comments:

This speech is open to your choice of purpose; that is, you can inform or persuade. Because this could be your first "standard" speech, you should keep these recommendations before you:

1. You have been in front of a group before, and they were supportive. Don't worry about their changing into tigers or attackers.
2. Select a topic that is familiar to you. Begin with your own personal experiences and check for those that are unique. Develop a topic around the experience you have selected. Many of the topics you reject as boring or no good can easily be developed into a speech. What might be old to you could be interesting to your audience. For more help on topic selection, check Chapter Four.
3. After you have selected your topic, begin preparing a speech with library research.
4. Limit or narrow your topic. You will find your preparation and presentation to be nearly impossible and extremely frustrating if you try to do too much in a short speech. Don't attempt to solve the world food crisis in a four minute speech.
5. In preparing your speech, try to remember the weaknesses of your previous speech and start working on improving them.
6. During this speech the instructor might be writing comments on a form. A copy of that form will be given to you so that you can study it. The instructor will be indicating those areas that need practice. After you have given your speech, the instructor will ask the class for comments. The instructor and the class want to be supportive and constructive.

Requirements:

1. Time limit is 3 to 5 minutes.
2. Be prepared to speak on the day for which you are scheduled. You are responsible for your place in the speaking order. If you have problems, you may trade with another student, but notify the instructor.
3. The introduction of the speech must include your statement of purpose and the main points of the speech.
4. You are required to hand in an outline of your speech to the instructor before you speak. Write out the complete introduction and conclusion on that outline. Also list your sources.
5. Practice, practice, practice.
6. Help your fellow students with constructive criticism after each speech.

Speech to Argue a Position

Comments:

An informative speech consists primarily of explanation of facts. You have already done this. But the speech to argue a position is different. While it,too, presents facts to an audience, it does this in a way that leads the audience to the speaker's position. Essentially this speech involves a set of arguments that are aimed at helping the audience agree with the speaker's position. Since this speech aims at establishing the reliability of a position, it assumes that there may be another side or position on the question that is not acceptable to the speaker. Therefore, you must consider several matters when preparing this speech.

The prime consideration is gathering, testing, and presenting evidence. You have already studied these tests of evidence in the textbook. The audience will also be applying these tests as you present the evidence. Evidence is the foundation of most good argument. Second, you must assemble the evidence so that it points to the claim. This connection of tested evidence to a claim constitutes an argument. (Think of each argument as containing only one claim.) Several arguments, or several claims, when joined together appropriately, should build a position on the issue. Third, you should take account of possible opposing arguments, or arguments that support an opponent of your position. You should briefly show why these counter-arguments are not acceptable.

Requirements:

1. Time limit is 4 to 6 minutes
2. Be prepared to speak on the day you are scheduled.
3. Supply your instructor with an outline. Write out the introduction and conclusion.
4. Include your sources. You might be required to give your instructor a form supplying each claim, the evidence to support that claim, and the source of that evidence.
5. The audience should be prepared to ask any questions of the speaker or give constructive criticism.
6. As always, feel free to seek additional help on any item including practicing your speech with the instructor before you give it.

Persuasive Speech I

Comments:

You have already read the chapters on persuasive speaking and audience analysis. You are advised to review that material and to review the evaluation of your previous speeches.

After your review, analyze your audience, select your topic and prepare your speech. Use the sequence recommended in the chapter on persuasive speaking.

If you have difficulty with topic selection, review that chapter. If the problem continues, see your instructor for help, but see him or her soon. Don't wait until the evening before your scheduled presentation.

The instructor's evaluation of this speech will be based upon a form, but the instructor will especially observe your persuasion techniques, the evidence of audience analysis, and your use of evidence. Be sure that you not only have good evidence, but also that you tell the audience the sources of that evidence. Finally, double-check your audience analysis and be able to answer this question: Why give this speech to this audience?

Requirements:

1. Time limit is 4 to 6 minutes.
2. Follow the assigned speaking order and be prepared.
3. Give an outline to your instructor before you speak. Make sure that the entire introduction and conclusion are written out with the outline. Include your thesis statement and main points in the introduction. List your sources also.
4. Include some gestures in your practicing.
5. Be prepared to discuss your speech and the speeches of others.

Persuasive Speech II

Comments:

This series of speeches is very different from the previous ones. This series has always been recommended by previous students as the best exercise of the various speech series. Because of its uniqueness and its complexity, we will list the comments so that you can check them easily.

1. You will give a persuasive speech, but it will not be graded.
2. While you are delivering the speech, the instructor *and* the audience will stop you to ask questions about the construction and delivery. They might ask you to repeat a part of the speech with their recommended changes for improvement. For example, if you just passed a part in which you could have included a good gesture, but did not include it, your audience can stop you, tell you the gesture and how it fits, and ask you to start again including the gesture.
3. After the speech, the instructor and audience will discuss the speech. You should record all comments for your revisions.
4. Based upon the criticism of your speech and the comments you hear about others' speeches, you will revise your speech and practice so that you can give it again.
5. All students will deliver their speeches. Then the revised speeches will be given. The speaking order will be the same for both the original and the revised speech.
6. The revised speeches will be graded.
7. All criticism must be constructive. No heckling of speakers is allowed.
8. The instructor will not repeat the same criticism for each speech. For example, if the instructor helps one student to reorganize the points of her speech to improve the speech and helps another with arguments, then he will probably assist another with gesturing. Listen carefully to the criticism by the instructor and check for its application in your speech.
9. If, during the criticism of a speech, you do not understand why the instructor is recommending certain changes, be sure to ask. Discussion of changes is helpful and informative.
10. You are encouraged to comment, to help your fellow students.
11. Enjoy it. It is fun!
12. Time limit is 5-7 minutes.

Appendix B

Evaluation Forms for Speeches

Speech of Your Choice _____

Purpose and Value —purpose stated —has value to audience	1	2	3	4	5
Organization —order of main points is logical —makes transitions	1	2	3	4	5
Supporting Material —sources of information given —each major point supported —promotes understanding	1	2	3	4	5
Posture and Gestures —no distractions —attempts gestures	1	2	3	4	5
Eye Contact —looks at audience —avoids walls, floor, windows	1	2	3	4	5
Voice —can be heard by all —appropriate speed	1	2	3	4	5

Additional Comments:

Informative Speech

Value —indicates value of topic to audience	1	2	3	4	5
Introduction —uses technique to gain interest —indicates main points —states purpose clearly	1	2	3	4	5
Organization —clearly indicated —appropriate to topic	1	2	3	4	5
Conclusion —avoids new material —makes appropriate concluding remarks	1	2	3	4	5
Supporting Materials —supports main points clearly —supplies sources —uses a variety of materials	1	2	3	4	5
Posture, Gesture, Facial Expression —no distractions —stands erect —attempts various gestures —demonstrates lively facial expression	1	2	3	4	5
Eye Contact —looks at most members of audience —holds eye contact with several —avoids walls, floor, ceiling, windows	1	2	3	4	5
Voice —can be heard by all —speaks at appropriate rate —shows variety in vocal expression	1	2	3	4	5

Additional Comments:

One-Argument Speech _____

1. Was the speaker's claim given clearly?

2. Did the speaker offer facts and figures to support the claim?

3. Were the facts clearly tied to the claim?

4. Was the speaker able to defend the claim against audience questions?

5. Was the speaker's voice loud enough?

6. Did the speaker use adequate eye contact?

7. Did the speaker stand straight?

8. What other advice should the speaker be given now?

Speech to Argue a Position _____

Evidence —sources of information given —uses evidence to support each claim —indicates that evidence has been tested	1	2	3	4	5
Reasoning —connects evidence to claims clearly —ties claims together —avoids fallacies	1	2	3	4	5
Purpose and Value —purpose stated clearly —indicates value to audience —promotes understanding	1	2	3	4	5
Delivery —no distractions —stands erect —moves appropriately —holds eye contact with audience —can be heard by all —appropriate rate	1	2	3	4	5

Additional Comments:

Persuasive Speech

_____

Purpose and Value —indicates value of topic to audience —promotes understanding —develops proper perspective	1	2	3	4	5
Introduction and Conclusion —indicates main points —states purpose clearly —conclusion is direct, but not abrupt —conclusion completes appeals	1	2	3	4	5
Organization —clearly indicated —develops transitions with variety —based on arguments and appropriate to topic	1	2	3	4	5
Evidence —supports each argument —demonstrates evidence was tested —clearly indicates sources	1	2	3	4	5
Persuasive Appeals —attempts to develop appeals —appeals are appropriate to audience values	1	2	3	4	5
Posture, Gesture, Facial Expression —no distractions —stands erect and moves appropriately —uses several meaningful gestures —demonstrates lively facial expression	1	2	3	4	5
Audience Contact —indicates audience analysis —speaks directly to eyes of audience —speaks at appropriate rate and volume —shows variety in vocal expression	1	2	3	4	5

Additional Comments:

Persuasive Speech

_____

Purpose and Value 1 2 3 4 5
—indicates value of topic to audience
—promotes understanding
—develops proper perspective

Organization 1 2 3 4 5
—introduction gains attention, states purpose, and indicates main points clearly
—organizational pattern is appropriate to subject and audience
—develops transitions with variety
—conclusion is direct, but not abrupt, and completes appeals

Evidence 1 2 3 4 5
—supports each argument with sound evidence
—uses a variety of sources which are indicated clearly

Persuasive Appeals 1 2 3 4 5
—attempts to develop appeals based on audience values and needs
—seeks to influence by promoting appropriate values

Credibility 1 2 3 4 5
—handles subject honestly
—demonstrates sufficient research
—shows concern for audience

Reasoning 1 2 3 4 5
—uses sound logic in argument and avoids propaganda techniques and fallacies
—shows relationship between arguments

Posture, Gesture, Facial Expression 1 2 3 4 5
—uses several meaningful gestures and avoids distractions
—stands erect and moves appropriately
—demonstrates lively facial expression

Audience Contact 1 2 3 4 5
—indicates audience analysis
—speaks directly to eyes of audience
—speaks at appropriate rate, volume, and pitch
—shows variety in vocal expression and articulates clearly

Visual Aids 1 2 3 4 5
—aids are clear and contribute to understanding
—handles aids well

Language 1 2 3 4 5
—shows clarity, precision, variety, liveliness, economy, accuracy, and propriety
—avoids slang, cliches, and vocalized pauses

Additional Comments:

Appendix C

Test Bank

Course Syllabus, Preface, and Chapter 1

1. One objective for this course as listed on the syllabus is to:
   A. be careful to avoid criticism of other's speeches.
   B. eliminate arguments.
   C. Increase skills in test-taking.
   D. become more competent in using audio-visual materials.
   E. improve abilities in reading speeches.

2. All of these tools of communication were given in the textbook *except:*
   A. electronic.
   B. body or nonverbal.
   C. computers.
   D. speech.
   E. graphic.

3. A major goal of this course is to help students
   A. virtually eliminate speech anxiety.
   B. dramatically improve scores on listening tests.
   C. determine what is correct communication.
   D. become expert public speakers.
   E. win friends and influence people.

4. The term "public address" is related to "communication" in the following way:
   A. public address is a broader term than communication.
   B. communication is a broader term than public address.
   C. the two terms are synonymous.
   D. public address is persuasive, but communication is not .
   E. public address is speaking to an audience while communication is speaking to one person.

5. Public address involves:
   A. speaking primarily.
   B. speaking and listening.
   C. speaking, listening, and writing.
   D. speaking, listening, writing, and reading.

6. Which of the following is *not* a characteristic of communication?
   A. multi-dimensional
   B. dynamic
   C. continuous
   D. retrievable
   E. unique

7. The term *process* as it relates to communication is
   A. a series of individual steps.
   B. a movement from one idea to another.
   C. a change from the main point to a supporting point.
   D. a constantly changing, moving development.

8. A characteristic of communication is *multi-directional* which means that
   A. it flows in all directions.
   B. it influences all those involved in communication.
   C. it has no identifiable starting or stopping point
   D. it always has a purpose, whether the speaker is aware of that or not.
   E. it is a series of simultaneous events rather than a set of steps.

9. Human communication can *best* be defined as
   A. the engendering of ideas in our minds.
   B. the process of engendering meaning by signs and symbols.
   C. the process of transmitting meanings by signs and symbols.
   D. using signs and symbols to get an idea across to another.

10. Which of the following is true of stage fright?
    A. It is usually eliminated in Comm. 110.
    B. It can be controlled, but it is rarely eliminated.
    C. Most competent speakers have practically no anxiety about giving speeches.
    D. Only students who have had no experience in public speaking face stage fright in Comm. 110.

11. A major goal of this course is to help students
    A. conduct better conversations with room mates.
    B. win friends and influence people.
    C. understand listening problems and methods of improving listening.
    D. become excellent debaters.
    E. become the best critics of public address that they can become.

12. As a result of your studies in this class, you should be able to do all of the following except:
    A. use good evidence and reasoning.
    B. develop persuasive appeals.
    C. make good ethical judgments about others' arguments.
    D. conduct a well-organized group presentation.
    E. use your skills in listening to develop better interpersonal relations.

13. A characteristic of communication is multi-dimensional which means that
    A. it consists of many dimensions such as facial expression, gestures, spoken words, and the relationships of the communicators.
    B. it consists of many different meanings for each word used.
    C. it is a series of simultaneous events rather than a set of steps.
    D. it influences all those involved in communication.

14. Which of the following is not a characteristic of communication?
    A. responsive
    B. unique
    C. argumentative
    D. purposive
    E. irretrievable

15. Of the following definitions, which best fits the definition of human communication?
    A. Using symbols to get an idea across to another.
    B. The process of transmitting meanings by signs and symbols.
    C. The engendering of ideas in our minds through symbols.
    D. Speaking and listening.
    E. The process of receiving, constructing meaning from, and responding to spoken and/or nonverbal messages.

16. The amount of our waking hours spent in communication is approximately
    A. 90%.
    B. 80%.
    C. 75%.
    D. 60%.

Chapter 2 - Communication and Ethics

1. The Christian perspective for ethical communication described in the text
    A. is similar to the dialogic perspective.
    B. accepts others' opinions as valid.
    C. considers the needs of others.
    D. does not consider the situation at all when making a decision.

2. The democratic perspective for ethical communication is rooted heavily in:
    A. empathy.
    B. the particular situation.
    C. a Christian basis.
    D. a rationalistic basis.
    E. a dialogical basis.

3. From the perspective for ethical communication recommended in the textbook, a speech on "Why You Should Eat Mice" would be wrong because:
    A. it has too much humor in it.
    B. it fails to meet audience needs.
    C. no one wants to hear this.
    D. it is unethical to eat mice.
    E. it is bad for your health.

4. The dialogical perspective maintains that ethical communication
    A. respects only the positions of the other person.
    B. must be rational.
    C. is empathic.
    D. must avoid emotional appeals.
    E. must use the law as a reference.

5. What ethical perspective is revealed by the following statement? "You can't ask that the mayor be recalled because he uses vulgar language. He isn't violating the city code."
    A. situational
    B. dialogic
    C. rationalist
    D. democratic
    E. legal

6. What ethical perspective is revealed by the following statement? "Each speaker tonight had a right to say what he or she thought about the policy."
    A. situational
    B. dialogic
    C. rationalist
    D. democratic
    E. utilitarian

7. What ethical perspective is revealed by the following statement? "He certainly made me angry, but I didn't hear any good arguments that would help me make a reasonable decision."
    A. situational
    B. democratic
    C. legal
    D. dialogic
    E. rationalist

8. What ethical perspective is revealed by the following statement? "I'm upset about his criticism, because he didn't really try to understand my feelings on the subject."
    A. situational
    B. dialogic
    C. rationalist
    D. democratic

9. What ethical perspective is revealed by this statement? "This audience was so bored they needed the shock of that visual aid."
   A. situational
   B. dialogic
   C. rationalist
   D. democratic
   E. legal

10. In the textbook all of the following were offered as *basic* principles for ethical communication in a Christian perspective *except:*
   A. Always be reasonable in what you present.
   B. Recognize how communication influences the direction of the lives of others.
   C. Hold a high view of the communication process.
   D. Each person should give full respect to others.

11. The rationalist perspective of ethics maintains that a speech is ethical if it
   A. promotes logical consideration.
   B. remains within the law.
   C. uses no emotional appeals.
   D. encourages nonjudgmental, supporting discussions.
   E. suits a particular audience's desire.

12. The democratic perspective for ethical communication is *faulty* because it
   A. believes that democracies rely on freedom of speech.
   B. maintains that the majority should rule.
   C. denies the rational basis needed for communication.
   D. assumes that democracy is suitable for all situations.
   E. protects minority rights to dissent.

13. The starting point for the Christian perspective for communication as described on the chart in the ethics chapter in *Responsible Public Address* is:
   A. the Golden Rule.
   B. Wolters' book *Creation Regained.*
   C. the ninth commandment.
   D. Bible texts which talk about communication.
   E. the image of God in people.

14. What ethical perspective is revealed by this statement? "He had a lot of steam in that speech, but I didn't hear any good arguments that would help me make a reasonable decision."
   A. situational
   B. democratic
   C. legal
   D. dialogic
   E. rationalist

15. The problem with the ethical category of "religious" perspectives is that
   A. those religious perspectives are based on a religious writing such as the Torah or the Koran.
   B. Christians should not accept any religious writing except the Bible.
   C. "religious" is usually defined too narrowly to be one's own private life only.
   D. all religious views have some basic principles in common such as a belief in a god.
   E. very few scholars study the many different religious views needed to have a comprehensive set of ethical principles.

16. The legal perspective for ethical communication maintains that
   A. if something is not specifically illegal, it is ethical.
   B. democracy supplies the laws that the majority believe is ethical behavior.
   C. if the law is enforced, then it is ethical.
   D. if an act is legal and enforced, then it is ethical.

17. The dialogical perspective maintains that ethical communication
   A. demonstrates respect for all persons including one's self.
   B. shows sympathy for those who are not as well off as we are.
   C. demands clear, sound reasoning and good evidence.
   D. maintains that all opinions are valid.

18. The rationalist perspective holds that ethical communication
   A. contains only arguments and reasoning.
   B. conforms to the rules of logic or conforms to what rational people would say.
   C. limits the other person's ability to think about appeals.
   D. encourages the listener to go beyond reason.
   E. accepts the opinions of others as valid.

19. The democratic perspective for ethical communication holds that communication is ethical if that communication
   A. is considered appropriate by the majority of the people.
   B. is able to persuade the others to do what is lawful.
   C. is clear and the communicator is considered legal.
   D. is reasonable and sympathetic to the majority in the society.
   E. limits its emotional appeals to fit the majority of the people.

20. Which of the following is a basic principle for ethical communication?
    A. Always be reasonable in what you present.
    B. Everyone's opinion should be respected by all.
    C. Communication is basic common sense for how we should deal with each other.
    D. Recognize how communication influences the direction of others' lives.
    E. Respect other people's right to say what they want.

21. What ethical perspective is revealed by the following statement? "I felt upset because she didn't even listen to what I had to say about doctor assisted suicide. I know because my uncle did this."
    A. situational
    B. democratic
    C. legal
    D. dialogic
    E. rationalist

Chapter 3 - Listening

1. Which of the following is a characteristic of the poor listener?
    A. He has experience in listening to difficult material.
    B. She listens mainly for facts.
    C. He is receptive to new ideas.
    D. She is sophisticated.
    E. He is outgoing.

2. Which is a *false* statement about listening?
    A. Listening can be improved by watching the speaker carefully.
    B. Improving your reading ability will improve your listening.
    C. Listening ability is not necessarily related to intelligence.
    D. Few people have hearing difficulties.
    E. Mistakes in listening result in high costs.

3. Which is true?
    A. Teaching listening in elementary and high schools receives about equal emphasis as other language arts.
    B. Watching television improves listening skills.
    C. Spending much time reading each day results in a decline of listening skills.
    D. Development of listening skills is less important than development of writing skills.
    E. Use of listening skills declines as one moves into adulthood.

4. Of all the time students spend in communication, the percentage that listening consumes is closest to
    A. 25%.
    B. 36%.
    C. 50%.
    D. 68%.
    E. 75%.

5. According to the text, in order to better motivate yourself to listen, you should
    A. wait for the speaker to develop your interest.
    B. remember the characteristics of the poor listener.
    C. concentrate on the other person's mistakes.
    D. let your emotions guide your listening.

6. The best way to understand the listening process is to say that it
    A. is the same as hearing.
    B. is nearly the same as thinking.
    C. relates very closely to intelligence as reflected in I.Q. scores.
    D. involves a series of overlapping steps.

7. An important way to improve your listening during public address is:
    A. Keep your emotions under control.
    B. Take extensive notes.
    C. Know the personality of the speaker in advance if possible.
    D. Accept uncritically what the speaker is trying to say.
    E. Try to get all of the details.

8. Which type of listening will *not* be an important part of our work in this course?
    A. critical
    B. therapeutic
    C. comprehensive
    D. discriminative

9. Which is *not* one of the connected listening activities identified by Steil?
    A. sensing
    B. responding
    C. evaluating
    D. interpreting
    E. repeating

10. A speaker can help the audience listen better by
    A. using language that demonstrates liveliness.
    B. increasing his or her movements.
    C. sticking closely to a manuscript.
    D. avoiding topics unknown to the audience.

11. According to the text, scholars have agreed to use which of the following as a definition of listening?
    A. Listening is nearly identical to hearing.
    B. Listening is the process of receiving, constructing meaning from, and responding to spoken and/or nonverbal messages.
    C. Listening is the communicative process of receiving oral messages.
    D. Listening is the communicative process of attending to oral and/or nonverbal messages and interpreting them.

12. Which one of the following statements about listening is most accurate?
    A. Listening can be improved by focusing on the gestures and facial expressions of the speaker.
    B. Listening is nearly the same as hearing.
    C. If you can hear well, you can listen well.
    D. Listening is the process of receiving oral messages.
    E. Listening is the communication process of attending to oral and/or nonverbal messages and interpreting them.

13. Speakers can help the audience listen better by
    A. increasing the number of facial expressions they use.
    B. sticking closely to the manuscript or the memorized speech.
    C. having a well-organized speech.
    D. selecting topics that will bring the audience to a higher level of knowledge about a complex subject.
    E. using as many gestures as can be placed in the speech.

14. Which is not a key ingredient in the listening process?
    A. spoken messages
    B. responding
    C. agreement
    D. constructing meaning
    E. nonverbal messages

15. A helpful way to understand the listening process is to say that it
    A. is the same as hearing.
    B. relates very closely to intelligence as reflected in I.Q. scores.
    C. involves both verbal and nonverbal reception.
    D. is nearly the same as thinking.

Chapter 4 - Speech Preparation

1. The most important criterion a speaker should use in deciding on a speech topic is whether
    A. the topic interests the speaker
    B. the speaker can fit the material into the assigned time slot
    C. the topic interests the audience
    D. the speaker is an expert on the topic
    E. the audience needs to hear the material

2. A major problem with the "Gift of Gab" attitude is that it
    A. mixes an attitude toward oneself with a method of preparation.
    B. shows a lack of self-confidence.
    C. encourages a student to not memorize a speech.
    D. is a poor way to handle speech anxiety.

3. The first step in preparing a speech is
    A. prepare a list of possible topics.
    B. check one's own experience.
    C. decide how to handle speech anxiety.
    D. analyze the audience.
    E. begin research.

4. The process recommended in the textbook for gathering a large list of topics is
    A. itemizing.
    B. brainstorming.
    C. organizing.
    D. interviewing.
    E. reading.

5. The most important reason for rewriting a speech is to
    A. decide on the main points.
    B. improve style of language.
    C. make it easier to memorize.
    D. decide what quotations to use.
    E. improve delivery.

6. What is *wrong* with the "Inspiration or 'Just Pray'" approach to speech preparation?
    A. It relies on memorization.
    B. It relies on prayer.
    C. It suggests that speeches to inspire are not proper.
    D. It often results from lack of adequate preparation.
    E. It doesn't work.

7. The type of delivery recommended for speaking in this class is
   A. extemporaneous.
   B. impromptu.
   C. memorized.
   D. manuscript.

8. A major problem with the "No Sweat" approach toward speech presentation is that it
   A. seriously considers the improvement of the speaker's abilities.
   B. substitutes an attitude for a method of preparing for speeches.
   C. uses too much time for research and not enough time for practice.
   D. uses too much time for practice and not enough time for research.
   E. uses a style of speaking that is too academic.

9. What is wrong with the "WRMS" approach to speech preparation?
   A. It places too much concern on practice and research.
   B. Nonverbal elements of gestures, body movement and visual aids are not considered enough.
   C. It results in too much focus on language.
   D. It recognizes the hazards of memorization.

10. Extemporaneous delivery involves
    A. using a manuscript as one practices the speech.
    B. memorizing large sections of the speech.
    C. limited use of notes.
    D. impromptu development of gestures.

11. The process recommended in the textbook for gathering a large list of topics is
    A. staying with the list recommended in the book.
    B. read as many news magazines as you can.
    C. creatively letting your mind flow in many directions.
    D. interviewing others for their ideas.
    E. developing topics from your major if you can.

Chapter 5 - Organization

1. A major purpose for clear organization in a speech is that
   A. it makes the speech neat.
   B. the instructor asks for it.
   C. it helps the audience listen to the speech.
   D. it is not an ethical requirement, but it unifies the speech toward one purpose.
   E. it is a natural follow-up from good writing techniques.

2. An introduction to a speech should:
   A. supply the purpose and organizational plan for the speech.
   B. keep the audience entertained.
   C. flatter the audience.
   D. be prepared before the body of the speech is prepared.

3. Which of the following common techniques should be *avoided* in introductions?
   A. precise statement of purpose and main points
   B. telling a joke
   C. rhetorical questions
   D. providing the history of the subject
   E. posing a dilemma for the audience

4. Suppose a student gives a speech on "How we can help Eastern Europe develop democratic governments." Which organizational pattern best suits the topic?
   A. spatial
   B. cause-effect
   C. problem solving
   D. pro-con
   E. topical
   F. temporal

5. Which of the following common techniques should be *avoided* in conclusions?
   A. a summary statement
   B. reference to the introduction
   C. quotations
   D. a dramatically emotional appeal
   E. techniques to help the audience remember the speech

6. Suppose a student gives a speech on "The disadvantages of taking decongestants when you have a cold." Which organizational pattern best suits the topic?
   A. spatial
   B. cause-effect
   C. problem solving
   D. pro-con
   E. topical
   F. temporal

7. Suppose a student gives a speech on "The Life and Times of Yassir Arafat." Which organizational pattern best suits the topic?
   A. spatial
   B. cause-effect
   C. problem solving
   D. pro-con
   E. topical
   F. temporal

8. Suppose a student gives a speech on "Patterns for Organizing Speeches."
Which organizational pattern best suits the topic?
   A. spatial
   B. cause-effect
   C. problem solving
   D. pro-con
   E. topical
   F. temporal

9. Suppose a student gives a speech on "What television has done to our family life."
Which organizational pattern best suits the topic?
   A. spatial
   B. cause-effect
   C. problem solving
   D. pro-con
   E. topical
   F. temporal

10. An incorrect function for a conclusion in a speech is
   A. to make a last call for action.
   B. to help the audience to remember the main points.
   C. to give a last appeal.
   D. to summarize the speech.
   E. to give an extensive thank you for their attention.

11. Which of these techniques should a speaker consider using in an introduction?
   A. abrupt openings
   B. historical events
   C. apologizing if he or she is not prepared
   D. humor to "warm up" the audience
   E. gimmicks

12. A correct function for a conclusion in a speech is
   A. to make a last call for action
   B. to help the audience and speaker relax before the end of the speech
   C. to indicate appreciation to the audience for its attentiveness
   D. to introduce the purpose or goal of the speech
   E. to help the speaker's memory

13. Suppose a student gives a speech on "The beginnings of the North American Free Trade Agreement." Which organizational pattern best suits the topic?
   A. spatial
   B. cause-effect
   C. problem solving
   D. pro-con
   E. topical
   F. temporal

14. Which organizational pattern best suits this topic?
"Why I like front-wheel drive cars in winter."
   A. pro-con
   B. cause-effect
   C. problem solving
   D. spatial
   E. temporal

Chapter 6 - Informative Speaking

1. Which most accurately describes the relationship between informative and persuasive speaking?
   A. They are entirely different kinds of speeches.
   B. Informative speeches have no element of persuasion in them.
   C. Both types of speeches aim to enlighten and to influence attitudes and/or actions.
   D. Persuasive speeches aim to influence attitudes and/or actions while informative speeches try to enlighten the audience.

2. Which best describes supporting material for informative speeches?
   A. arguments, opinions by authorities, descriptions, comparisons
   B. examples, statistics, arguments, evidence
   C. comparison, contrast, opinion, statistics, evidenc.
   D. definitions, narration, statistics, comparisons
   E. statistics, definitions, evidence, opinions by authority

3. Which of these is a proper guideline for use of definitions in informative speaking?
   A. It should define the unknown in terms of the known.
   B. It should contain a small element of humor if at all possible.
   C. Use only one definition for each main point.
   D. Adapt it to the listeners' senses of taste, touch, smell, sight and sound.
   E. Simplify it as much as possible.

4. Which of these is *not* a proper guideline for the use of examples in speeches?
   A. It should be described extensively so the audience knows all the details.
   B. It should add to the speech, not take away from it.
   C. It should be adapted to the interest levels of the audience.
   D. It should be consistent with the tone of the speech.

5. Which is an appropriate test of supporting materials for informative speaking?
   A. Is the supporting material specific?
   B. Is the supporting material memorable?
   C. Is the supporting material desired?
   D. Is the supporting material dramatic?

6. Which of these is a proper guideline for use of statistics in informative speeches?
   A. Explain what statistical tests were used with the information you give.
   B. Try to avoid rounding off numbers so the audience gets accurate information.
   C. Compare or contrast your statistic with something that the audience knows.
   D. Use a small chart so the audience can visualize your statistical information.

7. Which of these did the text recommend for description in informative speeches?
   A. Be complete in providing details.
   B. Concrete images are sometimes out of place because they might offend the audience.
   C. Keep it simple.
   D. Since the audience has grown up with television more than with public address, you should use visual aids if at all possible.
   E. Try to use vivid word images.

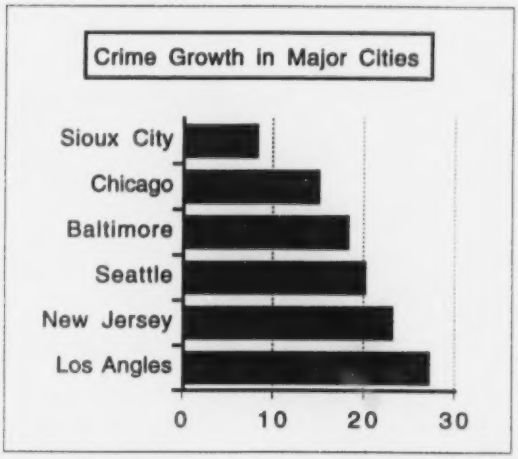
Chapter 7 - Audio-Visual Aids

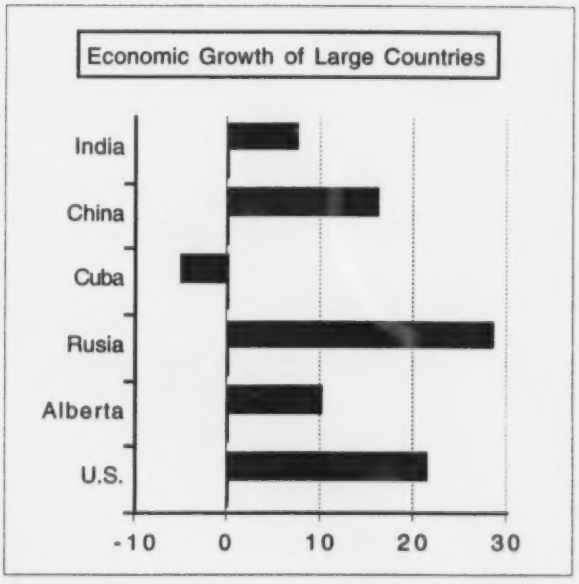
1. A good visual aid
   A. need not supply the source on the visual aid itself.
   B. can be passed around in the audience.
   C. will be constructed for rapid understanding.
   D. will contain the main points of the speech.

2. According to the text, a good place to begin to prepare visual aids is learning to
   A. use a chalkboard.
   B. use a computer.
   C. find places to purchase good visual aids.
   D. draw on overhead transparencies.

3. In order to prevent problems in using visual aids, a speaker should
   A. develop only the simplest visual aid possible.
   B. test the materials in advance.
   C. use only small visual aids that are easily handled.
   D. decide on the materials to use first before preparing the speech.

Explain at least *five* ways in which each chart below should be changed in order to make them effective visual aids on a speech related to their topic. Assume that it is a normal size transparency that would be used on an overhead projector.





Chapter 8 - Persuasion

1. What theory of persuasion indicates that people change their attitudes in order to receive rewards they want?
   A. Probability Theory
   B. Balance Theory
   C. Consistency Theory
   D. Pressure Theory
   E. Reinforcement Theory

2. What theory of persuasion *best* explains the following statement?
   "I decided to use Sparkle toothpaste because my wife likes the fresh air smell."
   A. Romantic Theory
   B. Democratic Theory
   C. Rhetorical Theory
   D. Reinforcement Theory
   E. Probability Theory

3. The idea that I might change my negative attitude toward the Republican Party because it makes me uncomfortable dating my friend who is an avid Republican is an illustration of:
   A. Need Theory.
   B. Democratic Theory .
   C. Rhetorical Theory.
   D. Reward Theory.
   E. Balance Theory.

4. What theory of persuasion *best* explains the following statement?
   "I have decided to help with the house work because my spouse is more willing to let me go golfing when I work with him."
   A. Romantic Theory
   B. Democratic Theory
   C. Rhetorical Theory
   D. Reinforcement Theory
   E. Probability Theory

5. The relation between persuasion and argument can best be described as
   A. argument is emotional quarrel, while persuasion is emotional appeal.
   B. argument and persuasion are essentially two words for the same type of speech.
   C. argument is a negative activity, while persuasion is positive.
   D. persuasion is part of arguing for a change in the audience's beliefs.
   E. argument is a part of the persuasion process.

6. The Institute for Propaganda Analysis began during
   A. the Middle Ages.
   B. World War I.
   C. the 1930s.
   D. the Korean war.
   E. the Vietnam war.

7. Who said persuasion consisted of three parts—ethos, pathos, and pathos?
   A. Aristotle
   B. Plato
   C. Cicero
   D. Augustine
   E. Whately

8. The Elocutionary movement in the history of persuasion emphasized
   A. that persuasion was important for defense of the Christian faith.
   B. emphasized delivery at the expense of other parts of speech.
   C. language as a key element in persuasion.
   D. that speech departments in the early 20th century focus on persuasion.

9. The communication theorist who dealt mostly with preaching was
   A. Augustine.
   B. Plato.
   C. Cicero.
   D. Aristotle.
   E. Whately.
   F. Demosthenes.

10. Separate speech departments appeared in American universities
    A. when the first universities were set up here.
    B. around 1850.
    C. in the first quarter of the 20th century.
    D. around 1950.
    E. in the 1970's when communication grew as a discipline.

11. In constructing a persuasive speech, the responsibilities of the speaker include
    A. avoiding the examination of the drawbacks of an idea or product.
    B. giving the audience only what it wants.
    C. only picking those topics which are fairly easy to defend.
    D. eliminating emotional appeals because they are not logical.
    E. studying persuasion beyond the speech situation.

12. "The process of influencing attitudes, beliefs, or actions" is the definition of
    A. persuasion.
    B. argument.
    C. criticism.
    D. credibility.

Chapter 9 - Credibility

1. "That degree of acceptability and believability that an audience attributes to a speaker" is the definition of
    A. persuasion
    B. argument
    C. credibility
    D. criticism

2. Speaker responsibilities in credibility include
    A. presenting both sides of a position.
    B. demonstrating only where there is agreement with the audience.
    C. remembering that the speaker can do little to change the credibility given by the audience.
    D. giving little attention to dress because the audience is not supposed to base their credibility on outward appearances.

Chapter 10 - Audience Analysis

1. Which is most important for a speaker when analyzing an audience before a speech?
    A. audience needs
    B. audience cultural background
    C. audience desires
    D. audience reaction to the speaker
    E. audience age

2. Which is true about audience analysis?
    A. Audience analysis is a time-consuming matter which many students would rather avoid.
    B. It is impossible to give a speech without audience analysis.
    C. Careful audience analysis guarantees the speaker success.
    D. Although it is not an ethical concern, audience analysis is helpful to most speakers.

3. Which is true about the speaker's adaptation to the audience?
    A. The speaker should never adapt to an audience because that would be dishonest.
    B. Adaptation is necessary, but one cannot become all things to all people.
    C. The speaker should always adapt to what the audience thinks is best.
    D. The speaker should adapt to the audience only if it would reject him or his message.

4. A speaker should analyze the audience *after* the speech to
    A. seek encouragement from the thanks offered by the audience.
    B. to help him or her choose a topic that will meet the needs of the audience.
    C. determine if the audience understood the speech.
    D. see if audience attention is lagging.

5. If a speaker tries to persuade this class to take Communication 110, the audience could say the speech is unethical because
    A. the topic is too easy for a college freshman.
    B. it would fail to reflect a high view of the communication process.
    C. the audience does not want to hear it.
    D. it would not meet audience needs.

Chapter 11 - Evidence

1. Which statement best describes the relationship between argument and quarrel?
    A. They are essentially the same.
    B. Quarrel is a chief way of persuading; argument involves personal attack.
    C. Argument uses evidence as its primary means; quarrel uses emotional disagreement.
    D. Both should be generally avoided because they tend to irritate listeners.

2. Students should learn tests of evidence in order to
    A. demonstrate their increased abilities when debating in the dorm, at home, or in the church.
    B. apply them to the materials they use in speeches and written reports or papers.
    C. have the main basis for evaluating others' speeches.
    D. meet the requirements of this course and other college courses that require evidence.
    E. examine the direction of our churches and organizations in this sinful society.

3. Which is the BEST definition of evidence?
   A. facts, figures, and opinions
   B. the supporting materials of persuasion
   C. claims which seek to influence the opinions, beliefs, and attitudes of the audience
   D. a process of engendering meaning with signs and symbols

4. A unit of thought containing a claim with evidence and reasoning leading to that claim is a definition of
   A. argument.
   B. testimony.
   C. logic.
   D. persuasion.

5. "The *National Inquirer* says that Senator Packwood sexually harassed several women before he was elected to the Senate."
   Which question best tests this evidence?
   A. Is the evidence consistent within itself?
   B. Is the evidence cumulative?
   C. Are the statistics the most recent available?
   D. Is there enough evidence?
   E. Is the source reliable?

6. Which question must a speaker ask before using any source of evidence?
   A. Is the source completely free of any bias?
   B. Does the source provide statistics?
   C. Is the source reliable?
   D. Has the source provided a visual aid of any statistics that might be used?

7. "Peter Jennings, on ABC News, said that more Americans have AIDS than ever before."
   Which question best tests this evidence?
   A. Is the evidence consistent within itself?
   B. Is the evidence cumulative?
   C. Is there enough evidence?
   D. Are there any significant exceptions to the statistics?
   E. Are the statistics the most recent available?

8. "The unemployment trend is certainly going up in our country. You only have to look at last month's Department of Labor statistics on the jobless rate in the latest issue of Time magazine."
   Which question best tests this evidence?
   A. Is the evidence cumulative?
   B. Are the statistics the most recent available?
   C. Is the source reliable?
   D. Is the evidence consistent within itself?

9. When testing the use of statistics in a speech, one should ask all of these questions *except*
   A. Has the source avoided using any random samples?
   B. Have the statistics been classified correctly?
   C. Were the statistics collected over a sufficient period of time?
   D. Are these numbers representative of what the speaker is describing?

10. "Deborah Tannen, a writer of popular books on gender communication, claims that men and women cannot understand each other because their communication styles are so different."
    Which question best tests this evidence?
    A. Is the evidence consistent within itself?
    B. Is the source a known expert and able to make this claim?
    C. Are the statistics the most recent available?
    D. Is the source biased because she is a woman?

11. "The *Star* reported that Dick Morris' girlfriend listened to his phone conversations with President Clinton without the president's knowledge."
    Which question best tests this evidence?
    A. Is the evidence consistent within itself?
    B. Is the evidence cumulative?
    C. Is the source reliable?
    D. Is there enough evidence?
    E. Are the statistics the most recent available?

12. Which question should the speaker ask about the relation of his or her evidence to the audience?
    A. How can I avoid giving evidence when the audience doesn't want it?
    B. Does my evidence have good style?
    C. Does the audience like persuasion which contains evidence and argument?
    D. Is the evidence consistent with the beliefs of my audience?

13. "According to one source, President Clinton plans a new tax on the incomes of people earning over $100,000.00."
    Which question best tests this evidence?
    A. Is the evidence statistically sound?
    B. Is the evidence consistent within itself?
    C. Is the source reliable?
    D. Is the evidence cumulative?

Chapter 12 - Reasoning

1. Which statement best describes the relation between *argument* and *persuasion?*
   A. They are essentially the same.
   B. Argument is a negative activity, while persuasion is a positive process.
   C. Argument is a part of the persuasion process.
   D. Persuasion is a part of argumentation process.

2. What type of reasoning is indicated in the following statements? "The U.S. should adopt a straight percentage income tax for all citizens. That form works well in France."
   A. Pro-Con
   B. Cause-Effect
   C. Series
   D. Analogy
   E. Example

3. What type of reasoning is shown in the following statement? "World War II developed from the inappropriate peace agreement of World War I which promoted resentment in the Germans."
   A. Pro-Con
   B. Cause-Effect
   C. Series
   D. Analogy
   E. Example

4. What fallacy does the following argument contain? "Improve yourself now! Join the hundreds who have already used our new Barbee cosmetics!
   A. Post Hoc
   B. Appeal to Ignorance
   C. Popular Appeal
   D. False Dilemma
   E. Personal Attack

5. What type of reasoning is shown in the following statements? "The college graduate faces an easier job market today because there are fewer graduates than there were four years ago when I graduated."
   A. Pro-Con
   B. Cause-Effect
   C. Series
   D. Analogy
   E. Example

6. What is the *claim* in the following argument? "According to *Time* magazine, many high school students do not have the opportunity to go on to college because their parents do not have enough money to send them. The federal government ought to make scholarships available to all such students since the nation cannot afford to have its human resources wasted because parents do not have enough money."
   A. Many high school students do not have the opportunity to go on to college.
   B. The federal government ought to make scholarships available to all such students.
   C. Since the nation cannot have its human resources wasted.
   D. Because parents do not have enough money.
   E. None of these

7. What is the *warrant* in the argument in #6?
   A. Many high school students do not have the opportunity to go on to college.
   B. The federal government ought to make scholarships available to all such students.
   C. Since the nation cannot have its human resources wasted.
   D. Because parents do not have enough money.
   E. None of these

8. What is the *qualifier* in the argument in #6?
   A. Many high school students do not have the opportunity to go on to college.
   B. The federal government ought to make scholarships available to all such students.
   C. Since the nation cannot have its human resources wasted.
   D. Because parents do not have enough money.
   E. None of these

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   B. The federal government ought to make scholarships available to all such students.
   C. Since the nation cannot have its human resources wasted.
   D. Because parents do not have enough money.
   E. None of these

10. What is the *claim* in the following argument?
"In the past ten years, terrorist activities have succeeded in Bosnia, Palestine, Israel, and New York. Since these activities occurred in different countries, at different times, and in different ways, we can probably expect to see many more terrorist activities in the future."
    A. Terrorist activities have succeeded in Bosnia, Palestine, Israel, and New York.
    B. Probably.
    C. Since these activities occurred in different countries at different times & in different ways.
    D. We can expect to see many more terrorist activities in the future.
    E. None of these.

11. What is the *warrant* in the argument in #10?
    A. Terrorist activities have succeeded in Bosnia, Palestine, Israel, and New York.
    B. Probably.
    C. Since these activities occurred in different countries at different times & in different ways.
    D. We can expect to see many more terrorist activities in the future.
    E. None of these.

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    A. Terrorist activities have succeeded in Bosnia, Palestine, Israel, and New York.
    B. Probably.
    C. Since these activities occurred in different countries at different times & in different ways.
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    B. Probably.
    C. Since these activities occurred in different countries at different times & in different ways.
    D. We can expect to see many more terrorist activities in the future.
    E. None of these.

14. What fallacy does the following argument contain?
"If you support the President's tax plan, you must favor the extremely wealthy who get a reduced rate, or you believe that there are very few poor people in the nation."
    A. Post Hoc
    B. Appeal to Ignorance
    C. Popular Appeal
    D. False Dilemma
    E. Personal Attack

15. What is the *claim* in the following argument?
"We can probably expect more sickness during this coming winter. *Time* magazine reported that there is an increase in diseases in the Midwest when El Nino develops. According to the *Weather Encyclopedia*, El Nino is a warm body of water in the South Pacific."
    A. We can probably expect more sickness during this coming winter.
    B. *Time* magazine reported that there is an increase in diseases in the Midwest when El Nino develops.
    C. According to the *Weather Encyclopedia*, El Nino is a warm body of water in the South Pacific
    D. probably
    E. None of the above is the claim.

16. What is the *warrant* in the argument in #15?
    A. We can probably expect more sickness during this coming winter.
    B. *Time* magazine reported that there is an increase in diseases in the Midwest when El Nino develops.
    C. According to the *Weather Encyclopedia*, El Nino is a warm body of water in the South Pacific
    D. probably
    E. None of the above is the warrant.

17. What is the *qualifier* in the argument in #15?
    A. We can probably expect more sickness during this coming winter.
    B. *Time* magazine reported that there is an increase in diseases in the Midwest when El Nino develops.
    C. According to the *Weather Encyclopedia*, El Nino is a warm body of water in the South Pacific
    D. probably
    E. None of the above is the qualifier.

18. What is the *evidence* in the argument in #15?
    A. We can probably expect more sickness during this coming winter.
    B. *Time* magazine reported that there is an increase in diseases in the Midwest when El Nino develops.
    C. According to the *Weather Encyclopedia*, El Nino is a warm body of water in the South Pacific
    D. probably
    E. None of the above is the evidence

19. What type of reasoning is shown in the following statements? "Students nowadays are interested in high paying jobs. Just today a student asked me how many jobs were available in management and how high the starting salary is."
    A. Pro-Con
    B. Cause-Effect
    C. Series
    D. Analogy
    E. Example

20. What fallacy does the following argument contain? "Have you noticed TV commercials lately? Have you noticed that they are including more sex? It's time for the Federal Communications Commission to make new regulations for TV commercials!"
    A. False Dilemma
    B. Begging the Question
    C. Appeal to Ignorance
    D. Post Hoc
    E. Popular Appeal

21. What type of reasoning is shown in the following statement?
    "If France had not taken control of Southeast Asia and divided Vietnam into different countries, the United States would not have had to fight a war to stop the advance of Communism in that area."
    A. Pro-Con
    B. Cause-Effect
    C. Series
    D. Analogy
    E. Example

Chapter 13 - Nonverbal Communication

1. Which is the most valid purpose for nonverbal communication in a public speech?
    A. To correct the verbal.
    B. To assist the verbal.
    C. To improve speaker's believability.
    D. To help listeners who get tired of words.

2. The "naturalistic" perspective for nonverbal communication is faulty because
    A. it implies that you should deliberately adopt a forceful, dynamic mode of delivery.
    B. it believes that only unplanned gestures will look genuine.
    C. it fails to meet the needs of the beginning speaker.
    D. it fails to consider the importance of gestures.
    E. it forces the speaker to practice too much.

3. The "naturalistic" perspective for nonverbal communication maintains that
    A. A person should not change gesturing significantly for a speech.
    B. It is natural to gesture, but training is necessary to do it properly.
    C. A helpful way to improve gesturing is to mark the manuscript.
    D. Gestures should be practiced until they appear natural.

4. The most helpful starting point for the beginning speaker in learning to gesture is to
    A. select a topic of value for you and your audience.
    B. read over the speech many times.
    C. watch experienced speakers, since they all use good gestures consistently.
    D. allow the gestures to come naturally without practice.

5. According to the text, in order to improve gestures, the speaker should
    A. confine his or her thinking about gestures to hand movements.
    B. be natural in all movements.
    C. always practice hand gestures in combination with other physical movements.
    D. mark the manuscript for places to include gestures and then practice them.
    E. focus only on content and not be concerned about gestures, since they will come automatically when the speaker gets involved in his or her material.

6. A good gesture will
    A. be natural, non-mechanical, and unpracticed.
    B. gain attention because it is new and different.
    C. catch the audience's eye because it has color and design.
    D. be coordinated with the verbal.

7. In order to improve gestures, correct practice of a speech involves
    A. lying on your bed while reading through the speech several times.
    B. practicing the main points in a corner of the library without disturbing others.
    C. focusing only on gestures rather than voice and gestures at the same time.
    D. practiceing gestures with the speech so that reminders for movement will not be needed.

8. Good facial expressions should be used in a speech because
   A. they clearly show the audience how nervous the speaker is.
   B. they add to the emotional appeals in an informative speech.
   C. they enhance the sincerity and honesty of the speaker.
   D. they clearly indicate whether the speaker has completed her research.
   E. they honestly show whether the speaker feels well prepared.

9. Which of the following purposes is not valid for nonverbal communication?
   A. It helps the modern audience which is used to action in television and film.
   B. It assists the verbal in communicating with the audience.
   C. It enhances the speech.
   D. It powerfully communicates ideas on its own.

10. A poor gesture will
    A. call attention to the urgency of the speaker's ideas.
    B. will be coordinated with the verbal.
    C. will draw attention to itself.
    D. will assist the audience in feeling empathy for the speaker's ideas.
    E. will demonstrate that the speaker is well prepared for the ideas but not for the delivery.

Chapter 14 - Voice

1. As a speaker, your responsibility toward the audience in your use of voice includes
   A. making your voice sound as close as possible to what the audience wants.
   B. accepting the voice you have without trying to make significant changes.
   C. drinking some soft drink to clear your throat before speaking.
   D. recognizing that the audience often does make personality judgments based on voice.

2. Saying "gonna" in place of "going to" is an example of which articulation problem?
   A. addition
   B. slurring
   C. transposition
   D. substitution

3. The tongue, teeth, and lips are known as
   A. resonators.
   B. vibrators.
   C. fundamentals.
   D. articulators.
   E. integrators.

4. The sinuses, nasal cavity, mouth, pharynx, and thorax, because of their role in producing speech, are known as
   A. resonators.
   B. vibrators.
   C. fundamentals.
   D. articulators.
   E. integrators.

5. The responsibility of the audience toward the speaker's voice includes avoiding
   A. judgments about the speaker's personality based on voice.
   B. criticism because the speaker usually can do little to change quality of voice.
   C. reactions to voice but instead focusing only on content.
   D. any criticism because voice is personal.

6. Saying "renumerate" in place of "remunerate" is an example of which articulation problem?
   A. addition
   B. transposition
   C. omission
   D. slurring

7. Development of sound by the vibration of the vocal folds caused by air passing between them is the definition of
   A. articulation.
   B. respiration.
   C. phonation.
   D. resonance.
   E. integration.

8. In order to avoid articulation problems, the speaker should
   A. develop an awareness of common words that are slurred together.
   B. maintain good posture.
   C. keep the walls of the pharynx moist.
   D. increase the pace of speaking.

9. Amplification of overtones is the definition of
   A. integration.
   B. phonation.
   C. resonance.
   D. intensity.
   E. vibrato.

10. The coordination of all activities by the nervous system to produce speech is called:
    A. integration.
    B. resonance.
    C. phonation.
    D. intensity.
    E. vibrato.

11. In order to avoid resonance problems, the speaker should
    A. develop an awareness of common words that are slurred together.
    B. keep the walls of the pharynx moist.
    C. drink some milk or pop before speaking.
    D. focus on using the tongue, teeth, and lips precisely.
    E. avoid high-chest breathing.

Chapter 15 - Language

1. Which of these techniques in oral style should be avoided?
    A. variety in sentence structure
    B. parallelism
    C. rhetorical questions
    D. repetition
    E. antithesis

2. What stylistic technique *best* identifies the following? "We will build on performance, not promises; experience, not expediency; real progress instead of mysterious plans to be revealed in some dim and distant future." Gerald R. Ford
    A. appeal to the senses
    B. repetition
    C. concreteness
    D. antithetical statement
    E. climax

3. What stylistic technique *best* identifies the following? "... we shall fight on the beaches, we shall fight on the landing grounds, we shall fight in the fields and in the streets...." Winston Churchill
    A. antithetical statement
    B. liveliness
    C. repetition
    D. metaphor
    E. jargon

4. Which problem of style is indicated in the following statement?
    "Man, he's really fat as a pig!"
    A. jargon
    B. loaded word choice
    C. cliche
    D. ambiguity

5. Which problem of style is indicated in the following statement?
    "He crossed his legs, took a handkerchief from a back pocket, wiped his forehead, blew his nose, and carefully and methodically folded and replaced it."
    A. equivocation
    B. loaded word choice
    C. cliche
    D. ambiguity

6. Which problem of style is indicated in the following statement? "The triad demonstrates a significant shift in interaction."
    A. jargon
    B. loaded word choice
    C. cliche
    D. ambiguity

7. Which problem of style is indicated in the following statement?
    "He always had a conservative perspective on the church, so I won't vote for him."
    A. ambiguity
    B. loaded word choice
    C. cliche
    D. repetition

8. Which problem of style is indicated in the following statement?
    "I suggest that you vote for Candidate A because she stands for fiscal responsibility in these times of worrisome deficits and growing economic needs."
    A. ambiguity
    B. loaded word choice
    C. cliche
    D. liveliness

9. What stylistic technique *best* identifies the following? "It is the duty of a newspaper to comfort the afflicted and to afflict the comfortable." Daniel Boorstin
    A. antithetical statement
    B. liveliness
    C. repetition
    D. metaphor
    E. jargon

10. Which problem of style is indicated in the following statement?
    "His voice was clear as a bell!"
    A. jargon
    B. loaded word choice
    C. cliche
    D. ambiguity

11. Which problem of style is indicated in the following statement?
"P.M. John Schutte has always maintained strong fiscal responsibility in spite of deficit spending and a decreasing GNP."
A. ambiguity
B. loaded word choice
C. cliche
D. liveliness

12. In order to improve oral style, speakers should
A. practice using gestures.
B. develop more enthusiasm in their use of voice.
C. enhance their abilities to handle visual materials.
D. study published speeches.
E. do all of the above items

13. All of the following were recommended in the text as good techniques for developing liveliness in oral language except:
A. oral practice of gestures.
B. metaphors if you can use them.
C. repetition that can work well.
D. parallelism.
E. antithetical statements.

Chapter 16 - Criticism

1. Which standard of speech criticism includes evaluation of delivery?
A. artistic
B. results
C. truth
D. speaker's intent
E. all of these

2. The primary purpose of speech criticism is to:
a. tell the speaker what is wrong with his or her speech.
b. tell the speaker what is right with his or her speech.
c. provide insight into how a speech works with a particular audience.
d. improve abilities to listen to speeches.

3. The best term to describe the standard for criticism recommended by the authors of your Communication 110 text is
A. truth/results.
B. speaker's intent.
C. credibility.
D. principles.
E. rational/analytical.

4. Which standard of speech criticism is indicated in the following statement?
"The speaker convinced me. He did a fine job."
A. speaker's intent
B. results
C. truth
D. artistic
E. all of these

5. Which standard of speech criticism is indicated in the following statement?
"That speech was tremendous! It would fit in with any of the great speeches in history."
A. speaker's intent
B. results
C. truth
D. artistic
E. none of these

6. Which standard of speech criticism is indicated in the following statement? "I liked the speech because everything she said was correct."
A. speaker's intent
B. results
C. truth
D. artistic
E. none of these

7. Which standard of speech criticism is indicated in the following statement?
"Churchill was a great speaker. Look how he moved Britain to fight during World War II."
A. speaker's intent
B. results
C. truth
D. artistic
E. none of these

8. Which process of speech criticism involves an explanation of what the different parts of the speech mean?
A. analysis
B. interpretation
C. evaluation
D. description
E. argumentation

9. Which standard of speech criticism is indicated in the following statement?
"I would judge that speech to be a good one because it fit together well and had terrific style. The speaker certainly can express herself well!"
A. speaker's intent
B. results
C. truth
D. artistic

Answers for Comm. 110 Test Bank

CH. 1	CH. 2	CH. 3	CH. 4	CH. 5	CH. 6	CH. 7	CH. 8	CH. 9	CH. 10	CH. 11	CH. 12	CH. 13	CH. 14	CH. 15	CH. 16
1 D	1 C	1 B	1 E	1 C	1 D	1 C	1 E	1 C	1 A	1 C	1 C	1 B	1 D	1 C	1 A
2 C	2 D	2 B	2 A	2 A	2 D	2 B	2 D	2 A	2 A	2 B	2 D	2 C	2 B	2 D	2 C
3 C	3 B	3 E	3 D	3 C	3 A	3 B	3 E	3	3 B	3 A	3 B	3 A	3 D	3 C	3 D
4 B	4 C	4 C	4 B	4 C	4 A	4	4 D	4	4 D	4 A	4 C	4 A	4 A	4 C	4 B
5 D	5 E	5 B	5 B	5 D	5 A	5	5 E	5	5 C	5 E	5 B	5 D	5 A	5 D	5 D
6 D	6 D	6 D	6 D	6 D	6 C	6	6 C	6	6	6 C	6 B	6 D	6 B	6 A	6 C
7 D	7 E	7 A	7 A	7 F	7 E	7	7 A	7	7	7 C	7 C	7 D	7 C	7 B	7 B
8 A	8 B	8 B	8 B	8 E	8	8	8 B	8	8	8 A	8 E	8 C	8 A	8 A	8 B
9 B	9 A	9 E	9 B	9 B	9	9	9 A	9	9	9 A	9 A	9 A	9 C	9 A	9
10 B	10 A	10 A	10 C	10 E	10	10	10 C	10	10	10 B	10 D	10 C	10 A	10 C	10
11 C	11 A	11 B	11 C	11 B	11	11	11 E	11	11	11 C	11 C	11	11 B	11 A	11
12 D	12 D	12 E	12	12 A	12	12	12 A	12	12	12 D	12 B	12	12	12 D	12
13 A	13 E	13 C	13	13 F	13	13	13	13	13	13 C	13 A	13	13	13 A	13
14 C	14 E	14 C	14	14 A	14	14	14	14	14	14	14 D	14	14	14	14
15 C	15 C	15 C	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15 A	15	15	15	15
16 A	16 A	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16 B	16	16	16	16
17	17 A	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17 D	17	17	17	17
18	18 B	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18 A	18	18	18	18
19	19 A	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19 E	19	19	19	19
20	20 D	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20 B	20	20	20	20
21	21 D	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21 B	21	21	21	21